

## Tilburg University

### Change in police organizations

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*Publication date:*  
2014

*Document Version*  
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

[Link to publication in Tilburg University Research Portal](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*

Rogiest, S. E. A. M. (2014). *Change in police organizations: A study of commitment, communication, culture, leadership and participation*. [Doctoral Thesis, Tilburg University]. CentER, Center for Economic Research.

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# **CHANGE IN POLICE ORGANIZATIONS**

**A study of commitment, communication, culture,  
leadership and participation**

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**CHANGE IN POLICE ORGANIZATIONS**  
**A study of commitment, communication, culture,**  
**leadership and participation**

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Proefschrift ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan  
Tilburg University op gezag van de rector magnificus, prof. dr. Ph. Eijlander,  
en Universiteit Antwerpen op gezag van de rector magnificus, prof. dr. A. Verschoren, in het  
openbaar te verdedigen ten overstaan van een door het college voor promoties aangewezen  
commissie in de aula van Tilburg University op dinsdag 16 december 2014 om 14.15 uur door  
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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I wish to thank my family, promoters and friends for supporting me during my PhD research. My husband, who never questioned my career switch, guarded my work-life balance and acted as a sounding board when challenges got in the way. Our two children, Viktor and Jade, who obliged me to switch off at night. My father and mother, who transferred their curiosity and thirst for knowledge. My brother, dr. ir. Rogiest, who lead by example and made me realize that work could be fun. My family in law, for their practical support in and around the house. Arjen and Jesse, for their excellent coaching and for giving me the room to find my own way. The members of the jury, for their constructive feedback. My friends and colleagues, whom I could turn to with my endless questions, statistics queries, and personal development discussions.

This research was conducted within the COMPOSITE project, which has received funding from the European Union's Seventh Framework Program for research, technological development and demonstration under grant agreement no 241918. I want to thank my friends and former colleagues in the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Italy, the Republic of Macedonia, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain, and the United Kingdom for all thought provoking conversations, novel insights and relaxing moments we shared the last four years. Additionally, I wish to express my gratitude towards the police forces who participated and guarded the practical relevance of my research.

Studying, analyzing, probing, and (re)writing the past four years made me grow as a researcher and as person. I joined the academic community to fathom organizational change, and my key take away is that this aspiration will never fade. I learned the boundaries of my knowledge, however, and this comforts me: there is so much to learn that I'll never get bored.

Thank you all for accompanying me and making this such a memorable journey.



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# 1 INTRODUCTION

*“It ought to be remembered that there is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things, because the innovator has for enemies all those who have done well under the old conditions, and lukewarm defenders in those who may do well under the new. This coolness arises partly from fear of the opponents, who have the laws on their side, and partly from the incredulity of men, who do not readily believe in new things until they have had a long experience of them.” (Niccolo Machiavelli, 1532 [2006])*

Organizational change continues to be a topic of interest, both for organizational leaders and academic researchers. The complexity and the high failure rate associated with change initiatives feed this attention (Caldwell, Roby-Williams, Rush, & Ricke-Kiely, 2009). The goal of this thesis is to add to the organizational change and leadership literature by investigating the effect on employee commitment of four facets common to all change efforts. We analyze *how organizational change outcomes are influenced by change content, change context, change process and individual characteristics* (see Figure 1.1).

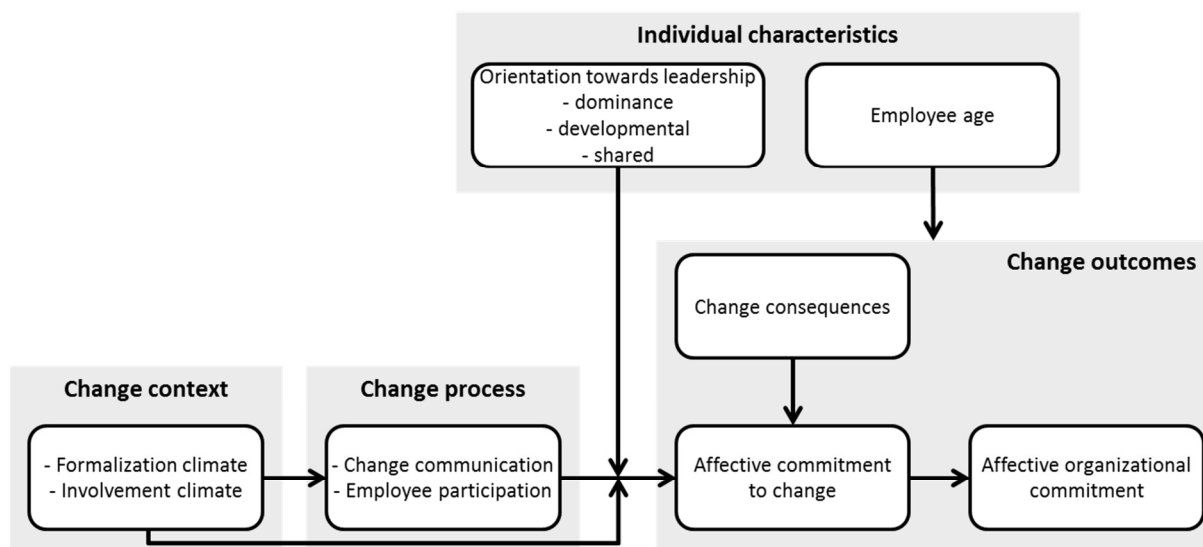


Figure 1.1: An overall view on organizational change

Providing this overall view will contribute to the understanding of employee responses, and ultimately lead to the accomplishment of one of the most important goals of successful organizational change, namely to ensure employee affective commitment.

In the current thesis we propose that *change will only be successful if the intended aims of the change are achieved in a sustainable way*. Once the changes are rooted in social norms and shared values, they will remain in place even when the pressure for change is removed (Kotter, 1995). An essential aspect in this regard, is the acceptance of the change by the employees, and the institutionalization of the new situation (Armenakis, Harris, & Feild, 1999). Organizations “only change and act through their members, and successful change will persist over the long term only when individuals alter their on-the-job behaviors in appropriate ways” (Choi, 2011, p.480). To measure if employees are inclined to alter their behavior, we choose affective commitment to change as an indicator of employee support.

## 1.1 AN OVERALL VIEW ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

The current thesis focusses on the way organizational leaders manage change, and how this impacts employees. Change management can be defined as “providing direction to activities, which are aimed at adjusting the organization to strategy adjustments, in an effective and systematic or process driven manner” (Kleijn & Rorink, 2010). Historically, the literature distinguishes between two main models of change (Burnes, 1996): planned and emergent change. Kurt Lewin (1951) was amongst the first to develop a model for planned change. He regards the behavior of employees as an equilibrium, which is the result of dynamic and restraining forces. Change happens when the dynamic forces are stronger than the forces against change. This will enable the organization to move from the old to the new situation (unfreeze-move-freeze). Organizational development is a change strategy that fits into this theory. The key question these researchers try to answer is which methods and techniques are most effective in specific situations.

Emergent change, on the other hand, stresses that change cannot be simplified to a linear series of events, but that change is a continuous process of adaptation to new circumstances and conditions (Burnes, 2009). It emphasizes an “extensive and in-depth understanding of strategy, structure, systems, people, style and culture, and how these can function either as sources of inertia that can block change, or alternatively, as levers to encourage an effective change process” (Burnes, 1996, p. 14). Furthermore, Burnes (1996, p. 13) argues that “successful change is less dependent on detailed plans and projections than on

reaching an understanding of the complexity of the issues concerned and identifying the range of available options. It can, therefore, be suggested that the emergent approach to change is more concerned with change readiness and facilitating for change than to provide specific pre-planned steps for each change project and initiative” (Burnes, 1996). Our model fits into the second category, as we aim to take into account the complexity of the organization, and to include the broader organizational and individual characteristics that can facilitate or hinder change.

On a lower level of detail, our approach is in line with Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) who built further on the framework of Pettigrew (1985). They highlight three issues, common to all organizational change initiatives. In their review, they discuss change content, contextual issues and process variables as relevant themes impacting the outcomes of organizational change. First, change content focuses on the target of organizational change, such as organizational structure, processes or performance-incentive systems. Second, contextual issues handle forces or conditions in the organization’s environment, both internal and external, such as government regulations or experiences with previous organizational changes. Third, process variables concern the actions typical for organizational change, such as employee participation during the implementation of organizational change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

In addition to the importance of fit between different organizational variables (Damanpour, 1991), interactionist researchers would argue that individual reactions to change are ultimately defined by the interaction between personal dispositions and situational variables (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996). From this perspective, the impact of change content, context and process will differ across employees. Hence, we included individual characteristics, as a fourth theme, into our overarching model. Finally, while one could consider several outcome variables of organizational change, our research is situated in the body of research investigating individual-level outcomes in answer to the call of Armenakis and Bedeian (1999). They stressed the importance of extending existing research, focused on organizational-level outcomes such as profitability and survival, to individual-level outcomes. In our model, we study perceived change consequences, affective commitment to change and affective organizational commitment, as outcome variables.



## **1.2 OVERARCHING FRAMEWORK**

### **1.2.1 Change content**

Previous research has considered content issues from several angles. Two views are particularly relevant for our model. First, changes are frequently described in terms of fundamental versus incremental change. Fundamental change comprises “actions that alter the very character of the organization” (Reger, Mullan, Gustafson, & DeMarie, 1994, p. 32). In contrast, incremental change consists of by step-by-step alterations, minor adaptations and adjustments (Walker, Armenakis, & Bernerth, 2007). Second, organizational changes have been categorized as episodic or continuous change (Weick & Quinn, 1999). “Episodic change is used to group together organizational changes that tend to be infrequent, discontinuous, and intentional” (Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 365), while “continuous change is used to group together organizational changes that tend to be ongoing, evolving, and cumulative” (Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 375).

In this thesis we empirically test our model in three different police forces, which recently underwent organizational change. Two organizations are the result of a merger, and in the third organization a new organizational structure was installed. These three changes can be classified as episodic, fundamental changes. They were clearly delineated in time and there was an intentional transition from one state to another. Additionally, the character of the organizations was altered both for police employees and external stakeholders. Team composition, responsibilities, and procedures were heavily impacted. As such, testing our model in these three organizations allows us to compare findings across projects with similar change contents.

### **1.2.2 Change context**

From a contextualist view, events cannot be viewed independently from their setting. This entails that the starting point for analyzing and optimizing organizational change is the outer and inner context in which the organizational change takes place. The outer context refers to the external environment in which the organization operates, while the inner context refers to the cultural, structural and political context within the organization. The way contextual variables are linked to processes, constitutes an essential element of the contextual approach. Processes will be both constrained and shaped by contextual variables (Pettigrew, 1985). Change context can impact change outcomes in two different ways. First, the context

will stimulate or dissuade certain behaviors and can be considered as an active element, creating and supporting processes in the organization. Context has the power to mobilize employees to achieve organizational outcomes (Pettigrew, 1987). Second, Damanpour (1991) found that the success of organizational change may be highly dependent on the fit or congruency between change content, change context and change process.

Integrating the views of Pettigrew (1987) and Damanpour (1991), the current thesis studies the direct impact of change context on change process and change outcomes, as well as the interaction effect. We include two aspects of psychological climate, as inner context variables, namely formalization climate, presented as an optimal structure for stable operations and involvement-oriented climate, which is more oriented towards flexibility (Patterson et al., 2005).

### **1.2.3 Change process**

Historically, change processes have received considerable academic attention. First, researchers analyzed sequential models and studied the relevant implementation phases during organizational change. The basic unfreeze-move-freeze model proposed by Lewin (1947) has been elaborated by, amongst others, Kotter (1995). He developed an eight-phase model, namely:

- (i) establish a sense of urgency,
- (ii) form a powerful guiding coalition,
- (iii) create a vision,
- (iv) communicate the vision,
- (v) empower others to act on the vision,
- (vi) plan for and create short-term wins,
- (vii) consolidate improvements and produce still more change, and
- (viii) institutionalize new approaches.

Armenakis et al. (1999) proposed a three-step approach, labelled

- (i) readiness, or “the cognitive state comprising beliefs, attitudes and intentions toward a change effort” (Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999, p. 103),
- (ii) adoption, or “the act of behaving in a new way, on a trial basis” (Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999, p. 103), and

- (iii) institutionalization, which is reflected in the degree of commitment to the new way (Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999, p. 103).

Next, scholars analyzed change phases from the viewpoint of organizational members instead of change agents. Isabella (1990) advanced a four-stage model of how employees construe events during organizational change, namely

- (i) anticipation, or collective interpretations based on rumors, hunches and suspicions,
- (ii) confirmation, or the interpretation of the event,
- (iii) culmination or when the views of the change are amended, and
- (iv) aftermath or evaluation of the change.

Currently, the focus has shifted to the strategies and tactics applicable to justify transformational efforts (Self, Armenakis, & Schraeder, 2007). The justice evaluation of actions undertaken during change initiatives are becoming a mainstream topic. The way organizational change is handled is considered equally, if not more, important than the content of the change itself (Caldwell, Liu, Fedor, & Herold, 2009). A significant body of research suggests that when workers perceive that they are treated fairly during organizational change, reactions towards the change and the organization will be more favorable (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991).

In the current thesis we study two aspects of change fairness (Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006) as key variables impacting change outcomes, namely quality change communication and employee participation.

#### **1.2.4 Individual characteristics**

When considering the success of organizational change, factors explaining individual differences in attitudes towards change, given a similar content, context and process cannot be ignored. Integrating an individual differences perspective into our model ensures that we take these variances into account. Starbuck and Milliken (1988) propose that individuals differ in what they notice, and hence will diverge in what they believe ‘what is and what ought to be’ when interpreting their environment. This suggests that individual workers assess change content, context and processes based on their own standards and schemata (Lau & Woodman, 1995). As such, organizational change will not affect each worker in the same way (Burke &

Litwin, 1992). Even when change agents do everything in the right way, employee support of organizational change can be shaped by other factors (Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011).

There may exist a variety of reasons why reactions towards change vary. In this thesis, we consider two individual-level variables. First, we study orientations towards leadership, as these views will impact the way employees perceive and recognize leadership (Hiller, 2005). Second, we analyze the direct and moderating effect of employee age on commitment.

### **1.2.5 Change outcomes**

Successful organizational change requires employee support to achieve the desired changes. There is a growing consensus in the literature regarding the key role of employee reactions for the success of organizational change. The body of knowledge considering change from an employee's perspective is steadily growing. Resistance to change, openness to change, readiness for change, cynicism about organizational change and commitment to change are only a selection of the studied constructs (Oreg et al., 2011). Hence, individual-level outcome variables are highly relevant variables to analyze in a framework on organizational change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

In our model, we study three outcome variables. First, perceived change consequences offers insight into the appraisal of the results of the change. Next, affective commitment to change, as an indicator of the success of the change, will influence employee support for the change. Finally, we include the broader impact on affective organizational commitment.

## **1.3 THE CURRENT THESIS**

This thesis examines the overall model in three empirical studies (see Figure 1.2). Chapters 2, 3 and 4 were written as independent manuscripts, and may contain some overlap. In Chapter 2, we consider the effect of organizational climate on affective commitment to change simultaneously with quality change communication and employee participation during the change process, while controlling for consequences of the change. Chapter 3 investigates the interaction between participative leadership<sup>1</sup> and employee orientation towards leadership. In Chapter 4, we analyze how perceived change consequences affect organizational

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<sup>1</sup> For reasons of consistency, in this thesis, we should replace 'participative leadership' by 'employee participation'. As this would harm the theoretical reasoning throughout Chapter 3, however, this was not considered a preferable option.

commitment, and whether this relationship is explained by affective commitment to change. Additionally, we investigate the commonly held stereotype that older workers are more committed to the organization, but are less positive about change. Finally, in Chapter 5, we integrate the conclusions of the three studies, discuss practical implications, and suggest directions for further research.

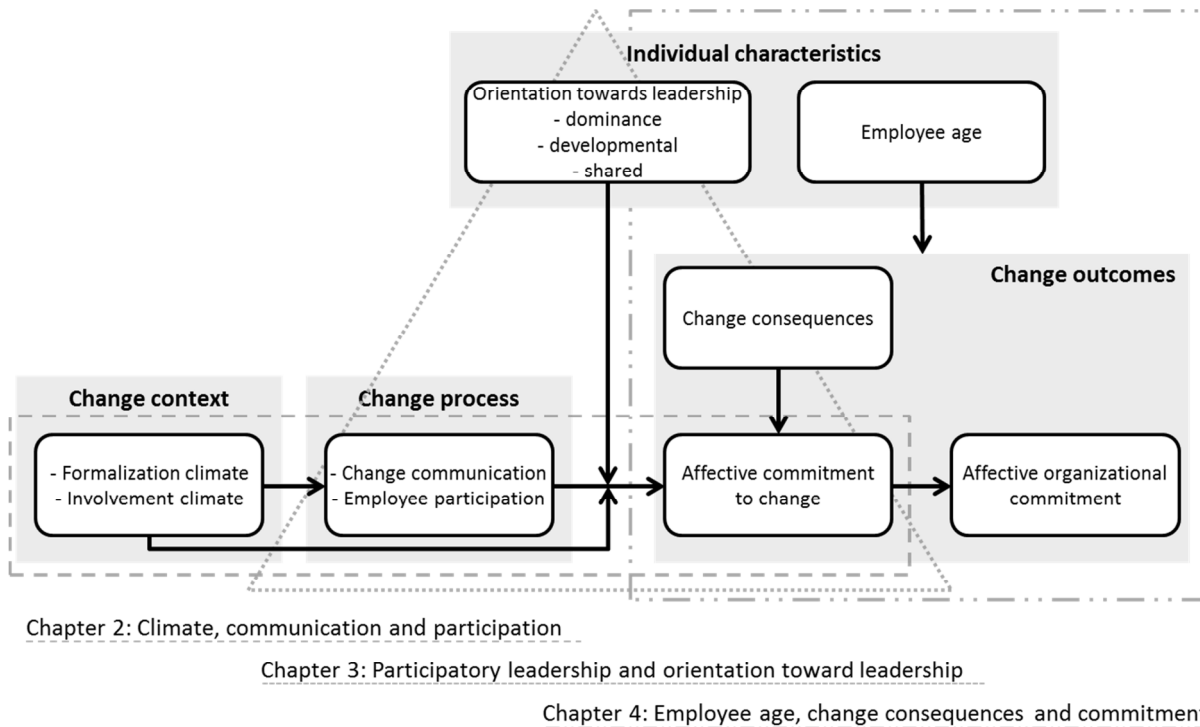


Figure 1.2: Overall structure of the current thesis

## 1.4 THE BELGIAN POLICE FROM A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW

The overall model is tested in three Belgian police organizations, one federal unit and two local police forces. Here, we provide a short background introduction. The Octopus-agreement of May 23, 1998 has resulted in a law to create an integrated police force (WGP, 1999). The integrated police is structured at two levels, and is composed of two relatively autonomous units: the federal police and the local police, both being connected to perform an integrated police function. First, the local police forces, providing the basic police functions, are subdivided into 195 geographic police zones. They secure seven basic functions: community policing, response, intervention, victim support, local criminal investigations, maintaining public order, and traffic. They primarily have geographically bounded competences, but can be assigned with federal assignments (e.g., supporting large-scale

judicial investigations or serious disruption of public order) as well. Second, the federal police conducts specialized law enforcement and investigation missions that cover more than one police zone. They fulfill specialized and supra-local police assignments, and provide support to the police governments and local police services, both in a national and international context. They follow the principles of the integrated approach, specialism and subsidiarity, and do this in synergy with other partners.

## 1.5 COMPOSITE

The current thesis is set in a broader context, namely the COMPOSITE project (COMparative POLice Studies In The European union) and is primarily funded by the European Commission as part of FP7. COMPOSITE looks into large-scale change processes in police forces in ten countries in Europe: Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Italy, the Republic of Macedonia, the Netherlands, Romania, Spain, and the United Kingdom. Police forces are faced with changing demands due to, amongst others, new types of crimes, changing public expectations, and tighter financial resources. Based on eleven interconnected work packages (see Figure 1.3), COMPOSITE provides insight into which factors contribute to the success or failure of change initiatives, initiated to face these issues.

Action Line I describes the challenges police forces face and the internal capabilities they can use to tackle them. First, the political, economic, sociological, technological, and legal evolutions are mapped (work package 1), followed by the identification of internal strengths and weaknesses, best practices and a typology of police forces (work package 2). Next, a tool was developed to optimize knowledge sharing capabilities (work package 3). Last, work package 4 discusses the technological trends, and provides recommendations for adaptation.

In Action Line II, an integrative model is developed, which studies the interaction of organizational changes (work package 5), identity and legitimation (work package 6) and leadership (work package 7). Work package 8 integrates the results of the seven previous work packages in an overall model. Action Line III disseminates the findings to police organizations and develops practical recommendations (*Description of work COMPOSITE*, 2010). As this thesis integrates organizational change and leadership, it fits in work package 8.

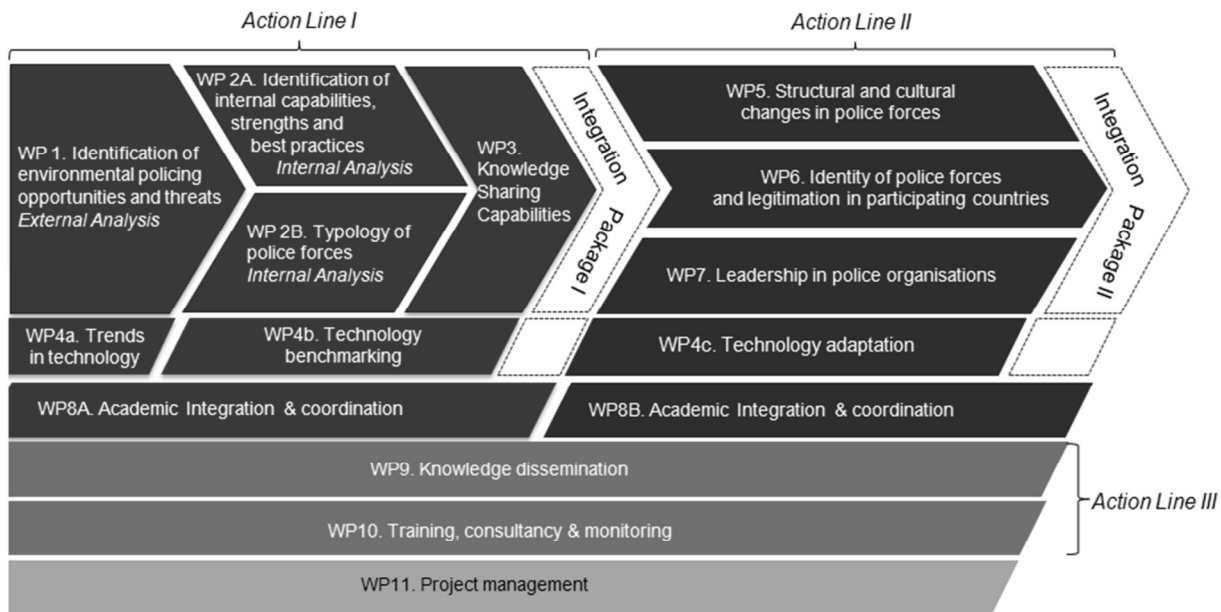


Figure 1.3: COMPOSITE project flow  
(Source: Composite Project Proposal, 2009)

## 1.6 EMBEDDING IN COMPOSITE

### 1.6.1 Action Line I

Prior to collecting data for this thesis, I conducted more than thirty two-hour interviews in the Belgian police for Action Line I of the COMPOSITE project. These interviews with employees at all levels (agent to chief commissioner) provided me with an understanding of the external challenges the police was facing, internal organizational capabilities and knowledge-sharing processes. Analyses of the 500 interviews that were conducted in the ten COMPOSITE countries, identified the following major threats and opportunities, which were categorized based on the PESTL framework. A PESTL analysis uses Political, Economic, Social, Technological and Legal as main categories (van Witteloostuijn, van den Born, Barlage, et al., 2011):

- (i) political and government influence in police matters, such as restructuring and micromanagement (political),
- (ii) the economic crisis, resulting in budget cuts and salary cuts (economic),
- (iii) immigration, migration and globalization, which increases the complexity of police work as they have to deal with a larger diversity of people (social),
- (iv) a changing society characterized by a loss of old values, changing demographics and higher inequality (social), and

- (v) advances in technology, such as ICT, internet, social media and forensic analyses (technological).

Specifically for Belgium, respondents most frequently mentioned changes in government, the deterioration of the economic climate, increased diversity of the population and increased ICT availability for citizens as environmental threats (van Witteloostuijn, van den Born, Sapulete, & Barlage, 2011). With regards to organizational capabilities, analyses indicated that, overall, police officers considered sufficient and high-quality personnel as well as technological support for back-office and administrative processes most important. In Belgium, respondents highlighted human resources (quality of the personnel, management, leadership, motivation, morale, organizational structure and performance) and relations with both citizens and external stakeholders as key strengths (Betteridge, Casey, Graham, Polos, & van Witteloostuijn, 2012). Third, the studies on knowledge sharing indicated that intelligence and related information was shared most, followed by organizational and operational information. Respondents considered direct person-to-person knowledge sharing the most effective, followed by intranet and written communication in any form. These answers are representative for Belgium, except for the methods of knowledge sharing: meetings within the force were considered more important than in other countries (Birdi, Allen, Turgoose, & Macdonald, 2011).

These European trends are very relevant to frame the research in the current thesis. The organizational changes in the three police forces were a reaction to budgetary constraints. The chief commissioners who initiated the changes, were looking for ways to reduce costs by cutting overhead, and realizing synergies in primary functions. When creating our research design, we included the impact of the change on employees as, both in theory and in practice, they are considered key strengths during organizational change. Finally, our focus on quality change communication as change process indicator can be situated within the knowledge-sharing domain. A key difference, however, is that COMPOSITE's Work Package 3 focused on the information-sharing channels whilst we look at the quality of the information transfer.

### **1.6.2 Action Line II**

The current research fits into COMPOSITE Action Line II by focusing on organizational change and leadership. Model development and data collection was performed independently from COMPOSITE's research. The first data collection for this thesis took



place in July 2012, before the start of Action Line II, and as such does not build on COMPOSITE knowledge as developed in Action Line II.

### ***Work Package 5***

COMPOSITE's Work Package 5 assesses organizational change. The first analyses are based on 161 structured interviews in 16 police forces in 10 countries, evaluating 316 changes. Qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) on the data gathered through the interviews, confirms the importance of individuals, leadership and organizational context for organizational change. Solutions for successful organizational change are characterized by four configurations (Van den Oord, Elliott, & Polos 2014):

- (i) the absence of code violations (i.e. the change project met the expectations of organizational members),
- (ii) absence of opposition to change (i.e. the change was not opposed by the interviewee's subordinates) and a presence of leadership/engagement (i.e. the police chief received a good evaluation),
- (iii) absence of intricacy and asperity (i.e. low organizational complexity and low restrictiveness of organizational culture), and
- (iv) presence of resolution of opposition (i.e. whether the opposition, if present, was eventually resolved).

Success of organizational change was measured by aggregating the evaluations of interviewees of the reported changes. The first conditions for successful organizational change were meeting employee expectations and the absence or resolution of employee resistance. Strong leadership was a second aspect to take into account. A third condition was the absence of intricacy and asperity in the organizational context.

In the next stage, survey data was gathered in seven countries, for a total of 3 516 respondents. The basis for the Work Package 5's conceptual model (see Figure 1.1) lies in Cognitive Organization Theory (COT). According to COT, engagement transforms intrinsic appeal of an organization's offering into actual appeal. Actual appeal is subsequently translated into actual behavior, both towards the change (i.e., support versus resistance) and in general toward the organization. This will, in turn, impact the evaluation of the change outcome. Specific components from COT that were expected to have an impact were added to the model. These constructs are organizational intricacy, organizational opacity,

organizational viscosity, and cultural asperity (Hannan, Pólos, & Carroll, 2007). Next, as part of engagement involves redesigning features to match the audience's preferences, change revision was included. Finally, leadership was integrated in the model as this naturally connects to engagement (Van den Oord, Elliott, et al., 2014).

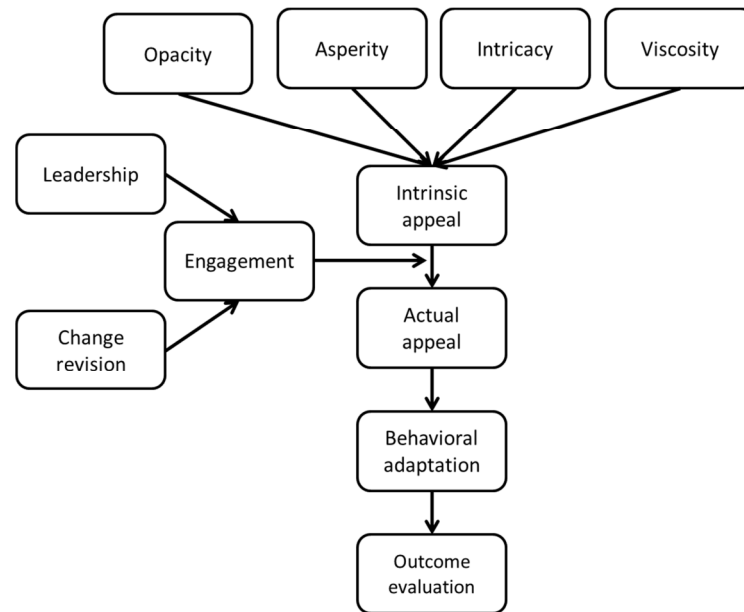


Figure 1.4: An overall view on organizational change

The results again highlight the importance of organizational context: low opacity, low asperity and low viscosity will increase intrinsic appeal of the organizational change. Additionally, high engagement and leadership were found to increase actual appeal, which in turn enlarged behavioral adaptation and outcome evaluations.

### ***Work Package 7***

The study was based on a standardized survey conducted in the ten COMPOSITE countries, 3 704 police officers took part in the study. The main findings can be summarized as follows (Bayerl, Jacobs, & Horton, 2014):

- (i) Positive or negative experiences with past changes impact readiness to support future changes.
- (ii) Change readiness is impacted by transformational leadership as well as leadership substitutes and team trust. The type and degree of this impact varies across countries. In Belgium, none of these factors impacts change readiness.

- (iii) Justice during the change process, especially distributive and informational justice, was found to be an important feature to increase willingness to support future changes across national contexts.
- (iv) A leader's change management expertise, staff involvement and decisiveness during a change impact the evaluation of this change success. However, the leader characteristics linked to positive change evaluation differ according to the environment in which the change takes place. The relationship between leader's characteristics (expertise, decisiveness and staff involvement) and change evaluation is much stronger for Czech and Macedonian police forces than forces in the United Kingdom and Belgium, although it remains positive.

Work Package 7, too, aims to study the impact of both change context and change process on change success, although measuring leader characteristics as opposed to our employee characteristics in the current thesis.

## **1.7 METHODOLOGY**

### **1.7.1 Design**

The research model was rooted in practice, aiming to take into account the complexity of organizational change. By combining internal context, change process and individual characteristics, I aimed to study the different interacting aspects that make organizational change such a difficult endeavor. For each of the building blocks, I searched through the literature for existing scales that measured the constructs. I choose not to develop my own scales out of validity concerns and time constraints. Based on discussions with both supervisors, the questionnaire was compiled. Next, I translated the questionnaires in Dutch, which was followed by back-translation by an independent researcher. The questionnaire was pilot-tested in one of the police forces, and discussed with our in-house contact to ensure that all questions were clear and could be easily understood. The entire data collection process was documented in a detailed protocol, to ensure optimal response and uniformity for every police force. This included, for example, the texts for the introduction mail of the research, the reminders, the timings, the hand-out, and return procedures of the questionnaires.

The main challenge in developing the research model was finding constructs that were appropriate, representative and academically relevant to study. Additionally, we aimed to study constructs at different levels (organizational, change process, and individual level),

which were ideologically connected to the idea of delegation of responsibility. We selected two forms of climate (organizational level), quality change communication and participation during the change (process), and orientation toward leadership (individual characteristic). In a formalization climate, employees are expected to follow structures; in an involvement-oriented climate, people can take ownership to optimize their tasks. With quality change communication, we measured if employees were well informed; through employee participation, we probed the possibility for voice during the change. Orientation toward leadership was selected to enquire to which degree employees were open to take up leadership tasks.

A limitation is related to using the questionnaire as data collection tool. This limited the number of questions, and this meant that the study would be based on information from a single source. One of the consequences of this was that we selected only affective commitment to change and to the organization, instead of including all three forms of commitment originally defined by Meyer and Allen (1991). This choice was guided by theory as well, however, as affective commitment has been found to be the most relevant construct to predict outcomes such as job satisfaction and support for organizational change (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008; Jaros, 2010; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Finally, because of the complex set up with questions at three levels, we spent a considerable amount of time to make the questionnaire easily understandable and attractive.

### **1.7.2 Data collection**

Several of the police forces interviewed during Action Line I were undergoing major organizational change, and I contacted two of these police forces for participation in my own research. I gained the cooperation of the third police force through referencing of one of my contacts. As our research required the cooperation of the heads of the police forces, there is a possibility of a self-selection bias. One could expect that only chief commissioners who perceive their force to work quite well would want their force to be analyzed. The three surveyed police forces were all located in Flanders, all in the same province, which created a more uniform sample. Although the federal police unit has different tasks, command is decentralized and the unit can be considered to operate relatively autonomously.

A first step in my research was to gain in-depth knowledge of the organizational change processes through an interview with the heads of the three police forces. We discussed the reasons for the organizational change, and the sensibilities at hand. I received background

information and archival data describing the change process (e.g., timetables of the change activities, and presentations of information sessions). We also discussed the benefits of participating in the research for the police forces. They all received an individual report and personalized advice. In one of the police forces, I also presented the report to all leading officers in an information session. As such, I ensured cooperation and open communication, which optimized the data collection process. Second, information was gathered following a strict data collection protocol. Last, I analyzed the data with two different goals in mind: reporting to the police forces, and conducting academic research.

The biggest challenge during data collection was the opposition of the leading officers (middle management) in the third police force. They were very concerned with confidentiality and created a group that opposed to participating in the survey. We issued additional communication and altered the survey (initially, the introduction letters were personalized), to meet their concerns. In the first two police forces, our response rate was 73.4 and 90 per cent, but in the third police force the response was only 39.7 per cent. Especially in the third organization, a non-response bias could have impacted the results. It is possible that only individuals who were very positive or very negative about the change responded to the survey.

### **1.7.3 Data analyses**

For the three chapters, we used a similar approach. First, we tested for common-method variance using the Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Next, we analyzed the data using ordinary least squares (OLS) hierarchical regressions. To ensure appropriateness of this estimation, we tested for linearity of the relationships, independence of the explanatory variables, normality of the distributions, and constant variation of the errors. When appropriate, we tested the mediation effects using the Johnson-Neyman regions of significance (Hayes, 2012). Additionally, we used confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS to establish the difference between the two change process scales: quality change communication and employee participation.

## 2 AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF CLIMATE, QUALITY CHANGE COMMUNICATION AND EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION ON AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO CHANGE

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### ABSTRACT

Although change process, context and content are generally accepted to be key in understanding failure or success of organizational change, studies combining these variables remain scarce. Our research considers the effect of organizational climate on affective commitment to change simultaneously with quality change communication and employee participation during the change process, while controlling for perceived change impact. We test our hypotheses with employee survey data from two mergers in the Belgian police. First, our results show that quality change communication is the only process variable that directly impacts affective commitment to change. Next, our findings indicate that an involvement-oriented climate positively affects affective commitment to change, through quality change communication. Last, we find that employee participation reduces affective commitment to change in a high formalization climate. Findings are discussed in terms of implications for the HR practitioner and the line manager as change agent, and challenge the HR practitioner as business partner.

**Key words:** organizational change, affective commitment to change, organizational climate, procedural justice, employee participation, change communication.

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Although failure rates of organizational change are estimated to be as high as two thirds of all initiatives (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Burnes, 2004), change often remains the only constant in many organizations (Sorge & van Witteloostuijn, 2004). The low success rate is frequently judged to be an implementation failure rather than a flaw of the change itself (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Klein & Sorra, 1996; Kotter, 1995). While a failure of planned change may indeed have multiple causes, few are as critical as employees' attitudes towards change. The central role workers play should not be underestimated (Choi, 2011; Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005; Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007) and the active support of individuals is essential, especially during the implementation process (Ford, Weissbein, & Plamondon, 2003; Self et al., 2007). Attitudes towards change have become a popular subject of scholarship, and many similar but distinct concepts have been introduced into the literature. Amongst these, a leading construct in the research on individual attitudes towards change is affective commitment to change (Choi, 2011), which has been associated with improved coping with change, lower turnover intentions and increased supportive behavior during organizational change (Jaros, 2010).

In line with Armenakis and Bedeian's (1999) recommendations, we study change process, context and content, to improve our general understanding as to why and how organizations change. First, quality change communication and employee participation are introduced as two separate change process variables. Previous research primarily studied the combined impact of both variables, as they are situated within the concept of procedural justice (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004; Korsgaard, Schweiger, & Sapienza, 1995). Both variables, however, will require different efforts from organizations (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988). Hence, considering them separately will provide leaders useful insights into these influential processes (Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish, & DiFonzo, 2004). Second, it is important to increase our understanding of how well organizations are suited to cope with organizational change, as this is becoming a continuous process (Jones et al., 2005). Hence, our analysis includes organizational climate, as a context variable. Last, we consider perceived change impact, as a control variable, since the outcome valence will have a considerable influence in and of itself (Fedor et al., 2006).

Our study offers at least three contributions to the organizational change literature. First, the general understanding of the impact of climate on organizational change is very limited (Jones et al., 2005; Lofquist, 2011). In our study, we include two different dimensions

of climate: formalization and involvement. Both dimensions of climate have an inward focus, but a formalization climate is presented as an optimal structure for stable operations, while an involvement-oriented climate is more oriented towards flexibility (Patterson et al., 2005). Including these two dimensions of climate will provide a better view on the organizational context suitable for successful organizational change. Second, although both high-quality change communication and high employee participation will increase procedural fairness (Caldwell et al., 2004), both processes require different organizational capabilities. Hence, insight into the impact of both variables separately on attitudes towards change will benefit organizational practices. Third, the interaction between organizational climate and both change process indicators, offers a deeper understanding of the impact of organizational context on organizational change processes.

Figure 2.1 visualizes our model. Below, we first briefly describe affective commitment to change as an individual-level outcome. Next, hypotheses concerning both change process variables and organizational climate are developed. Third, interaction effects of quality change communication and employee participation with two dimensions of climate are presented. Subsequently, we introduce our design, methodology and results. Last, we conclude with a discussion of our findings for future research and practice.

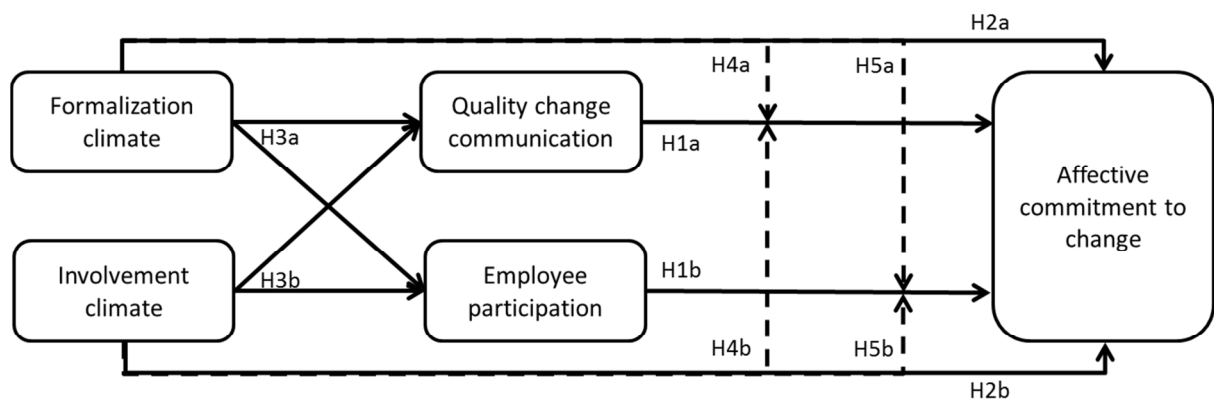


Figure 2.1: Theoretical model



## **2.2 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO CHANGE**

Commitment is considered to be one of the most important indicators in explaining employee behavior and desirable work-related outcomes in organizations (Choi, 2011). The definition of commitment has been generalized by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), and is defined as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets” (p. 301). This makes the concept applicable to multiple foci, including organizational change. Based on this definition, commitment to change has been defined as “a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 475). Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) propose a three-factor model of affective commitment to change. In our analyses, we study the antecedents of affective commitment to change, reflecting “a desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits” (Herscovitch, & Meyer, 2002, p. 475). Previous studies indicate the importance of affective commitment to change for supportive behavior during organizational change, higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (Ford et al., 2003; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Jaros, 2010; Neves & Caetano, 2009; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). In line with previous research, the current study focuses on this dimension (Conway & Monks, 2008; Herold et al., 2008; Neves & Caetano, 2009).

## **2.3 QUALITY CHANGE COMMUNICATION AND EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION**

Affective commitment to change develops when individuals recognize the value of organizational change. The way the organizational change is implemented will strongly influence affective commitment to change. High-quality change communication is typically defined as accurate, timely and complete information addressing employee concerns (Miller & Monge, 1986; Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994), as well as offering opportunities for participation in decision-making are widely recommended strategies to increase involvement and value relevance, and as such impact commitment to change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Beer & Nohria, 2000; Choi, 2011; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Although both change processes will enhance perceptions of procedural justice (Caldwell et al., 2004; Korsgaard et al., 1995), we suggest that they will increase affective commitment to change in different ways. We argue that high-quality change communication will reduce uncertainty, and that high employee participation will increase the opportunity for voice and control over the outcome of the change.

First, organizational change implies great uncertainty and employees will devote much time to processes of sense-making (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). The provided information reduces uncertainty (Bordia et al., 2004) and allows employees to prepare, which will enhance their positive perceptions about the change. Especially during organizational changes characterized by high uncertainty such as large transformations aimed at altering responsibilities, teams or locations, high-quality change communication will positively impact affective commitment to change. Previous findings relate high-quality change communication to greater change acceptance, openness and support for the change (Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia, & Irmer, 2007; Miller et al., 1994; Oreg et al., 2011; Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

*Hypothesis 1a (H1a): High-quality change communication will positively relate to affective commitment to change.*

Second, the opportunity for voice, self-discovery and increased influence over the outcome of the change is facilitated by participation in decision-making. This will provide employees with the inherent motivation to support the change (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Bordia et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2004; Gopinath & Becker, 2000; Johnson-Cramer, Cross, & Yan, 2003). Employee participation has been reported to relate to positive outcomes such as higher readiness and acceptance of change, and overall exhibited support for the change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007; Oreg et al., 2011; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). As employee participation and quality change communication influence attitudes towards change through different mechanisms, we propose that employee participation will partially contribute to affective commitment to change as well.

*Hypothesis 1b (H1b): High employee participation will positively relate to affective commitment to change.*

## **2.4 FORMALIZATION AND INVOLVEMENT CLIMATE**

Organizational change cannot be separated from the organization in which the change occurs. Rather, organizational change should be seen as a process that emerges and evolves in the cultural, historical and political context of the organization (Pettigrew & Whipp, 1991). In line with this observation, many researchers have looked into contextual factors such as

positive experiences with previous changes (Devos, Vanderheyden, & Van den Broeck, 2002), high-quality relationships between employees and managers (Parish, Cadwallader, & Busch, 2008), and effective leadership practices (Herold et al., 2008; Parish et al., 2008). Psychological climate represents an individual's perception of their work environment (James et al., 2008). These perceptions allow an employee to interpret events, predict possible outcomes and evaluate the appropriateness of their actions (Parker et al., 2003). In prior work, psychological climate has been found to be strongly related to affective variables at work, including organizational citizenship behavior (Ehrhart, 2004), innovation (Anderson & West, 1998), and organizational commitment (McMurray, Scott, & Pace, 2004). Additionally, previous research related an individual's perception of the organizational environment to readiness to accept and engage in organizational change (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007; Holt et al., 2007).

In the current study, we included two dimensions of climate, namely formalization and involvement, which are embedded in the broader competing values framework (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Each proposed dimension has a specific focus, and the combination of evaluations on each dimension will be different for each organization. As both dimensions have their own specific focus, they can be combined. Both formalization and an involvement-oriented climate share an inward focus. This is especially relevant when studying organizational change, as it emphasizes the relationship between employees and the tasks they perform, on the one hand, and the organization, on the other hand. A formalization climate refers to an organization that is "concerned with formal rules and procedures" (Patterson et al., 2005, p. 386). We argue that increased formalization will reduce affective commitment to change, since a formalization climate implies a focus on consolidation and continuity. A highly formalized organization is characterized by strict rules and procedures, and is oriented towards maintaining the status quo, especially apt in stable environments. In such a climate, employees view change as a threat and a challenge to the existing organization. This will reduce the perceived value and success of the change, and decrease affective commitment to change. In support of this reasoning, Eby, Adams, Russell, and Gaby (2000) report that flexible policies and procedures are positively related to employees' evaluations of whether their organization is ready to cope with change events.

*Hypothesis 2a (H2a): A high formalization climate will negatively relate to affective commitment to change.*

In contrast, we expect that a high involvement-oriented climate will increase affective commitment to change. An involvement-oriented climate refers to an organization where “employees have considerable influence over decision-making” and which is characterized by “the free sharing of information throughout the organization” (Patterson et al., 2005, p. 386). Organizations with a high involvement-oriented climate are characterized by participation and empowerment. Hence, we propose that change initiatives will take into account and respect individuals’ views, and stimulate affective commitment to change. Previous research indicates that climates of involvement, empowerment, resolving conflicts, and cooperation focused on employee well-being and commitment will increase employee satisfaction, commitment and motivation (Maynard, Mathieu, Marsh, & Ruddy, 2007; Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999), and will positively influence their attitudes towards change (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Eby et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2005; Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo, 1996).

*Hypothesis 2b (H2b): A high involvement-oriented climate will positively relate to affective commitment to change.*

## **2.5 QUALITY CHANGE COMMUNICATION AND EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION AS MEDIATORS**

We argue that both quality change communication and employee participation during a change process are useful mediating constructs to understand how organizational climate influences affective commitment to change. Psychological climate impacts the perceptions of supported and rewarded behaviors and practices. As such, this will direct and motivate employee efforts (Schneider et al., 1996). First, an organizational climate high in formalization focuses on rules and procedures as primary modus operandi. Leadership strives for stability and control, through formal information management, fact-based decision-making and targeted communication. The focus on formal rules and procedures aims to optimize communication, but does not foster participative decision-making (Jones et al., 2005). In a high formalization climate, we expect that there will be few opportunities for employee participation. In addition, employees will try to limit their involvement as this is not reinforced within the organization.

*Hypothesis 3a (H3a): The negative effect of a high formalization climate on affective commitment to change is fully mediated by employee participation.*

In an organizational climate characterized by involvement, information is more broadly shared, and individual employees have more opportunities to participate (Miller et al., 1994). Employees are provided with opportunities to investigate, discuss and impact their environment. This organizational capability can fruitfully be applied during change initiatives, ensuring that correct and timely information is provided to individual employees, and that structures for participation are put in place. Moreover, the organizational context influences the expectations of individual employees, and hence their behavior. High-quality change communication and employee participation will be called for, as these practices are supported in the organization. This will increase the focus on these processes during organizational change initiatives. Previously, Eby et al. (2000) found that employees who perceive their environment as highly participative will be more likely to anticipate being involved in decisions during change initiatives.

*Hypothesis 3b (H3b): The positive effect of a high involvement-oriented climate on affective commitment to change is fully mediated by quality change communication and employee participation.*

## **2.6 CLIMATE AS A POTENTIAL MODERATOR**

The impact of quality change communication and employee participation will depend on the context in which these practices are implemented (Miller & Monge, 1986). Previously, scholars have emphasized the importance of a match between organizational culture and implementation method (Damanpour, 1991; Piderit, 2000). Lok, Hung, Walsh, Wang, and Crawford (2005), found that organizational alignment increased the effectiveness of improvement programs. Additionally, Lofquist (2011) demonstrated that a mismatch between organizational climate and implementation method contributes to the failure of organizational change. As climate defines the agreed set of accepted behaviors (Meyerson & Martin, 1987), it will impact the effect of the change process variables on affective commitment to change. A high formalization climate emphasizes formal information management and precise communication. A high involvement-oriented climate stresses open communication as a way to foster morale and cohesion amongst employees (Jones et al., 2005). We propose that when an employee exhibits a certain behavior in a climate that is supportive, the impact will be higher. Both in high formalization and high involvement-oriented climates, high-quality change communication will be most effective and organizational sense-making can be

optimized. Hence, we propose that the impact of high-quality change communication on affective commitment to change will increase.

*Hypothesis 4a (H4a): There is a positive interaction effect between a formalization climate and quality change communication. High-quality change communication particularly increases affective commitment to change in a high formalization climate.*

*Hypothesis 4b (H4b): There is a positive interaction effect between an involvement-oriented climate and quality change communication. High-quality change communication particularly increases affective commitment to change in a high involvement-oriented climate.*

With regards to decision-making processes, however, a highly formalized climate favors data-based decision-making, while a high involvement-oriented climate supports participative decision-making (Jones et al., 2005). In a highly formalized climate, employee participation does not fit within the organizational norms and will not be accepted. Hence, any effort spent on participation will not be rewarded, and might even be penalized. Therefore, we expect that the impact of employee participation on affective commitment to change will be negative in a high formalization climate. In contrast, employee participation is a key characteristic of decision-making in a high involvement-oriented climate. This behavior will be reinforced. Hence, we expect that in a high involvement environment, the effect of employee participation on affective commitment to change will increase.

*Hypothesis 5a (H5a): There is a negative interaction effect between a formalization climate and employee participation. High employee participation particularly reduces affective commitment to change in a high formalization climate.*

*Hypothesis 5b (H5b): There is a positive interaction effect between an involvement-oriented climate and employee participation. High employee participation particularly increases affective commitment to change in a high involvement-oriented climate.*

## 2.7 METHOD

This study tests the hypotheses associated with our theoretical model by collecting data through an employee survey in two different police organizations. To reduce common-method variance, a number of *ex-ante* steps were taken in the design of the study, as suggested by Chang, van Witteloostuijn, and Eden (2010). For multi-item Likert-scales, multiple endpoints were used (ranging from 4 to 7), as well as different formats in the form of reversed items, as proposed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003). Additionally, the order of the items was randomized between constructs, and we included a complex set of constructs dealing with individual-level attitudes (affective commitment to change), change-specific processes (quality change communication and employee participation), and organizational-level characteristics (organizational climates). Moreover, moderation effects were estimated, which reduces the likelihood that individual respondents were guided by a mental model that correctly reflects the theorized relationships. In addition, an *ex-post* Harman's one-factor test was conducted (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), without detecting evidence of common-method variance.

### 2.7.1 Research context

The first organization is a local Belgian police force, with 158 employees. They are focused on neighborhood policing, reception, intervention, aid to victims, local investigations, maintaining public order, and traffic control. It was created nine months before the study by merging two adjacent police forces with the same responsibilities and tasks, but covering different geographical areas. The second organization is a support unit of a Belgian police force, with 20 employees. Their focus is primarily on providing technical, administrative and operational support to local police forces, and on coordinating national police operations. The support unit was created seven months before the study in a merger of two separate entities with the same responsibilities and tasks, but in adjacent regions. Both mergers intended to improve cooperation and increase knowledge transfer between two similar organizations, while minimizing individual impact by limiting changes in work units, responsibilities, tasks and locations. In both organizations, we measured the psychological climate in the work units, as leadership and responsibilities may vary and foster diverse climates across units. Employees not always worked in a similar climate, nor did they receive the same levels of information and possibilities for participation, or experienced a similar change impact.

In total, 178 surveys were distributed – 158 in the local police force and 20 in the support unit – of which 134 completed surveys were returned: 116 in the local police force and 18 in the support unit. This resulted in an overall response rate of 75.3 percent. Of all the respondents, 65.7 percent are male, 61.7 percent are younger than 45 years, 57.4 percent worked more than ten years for the police organization, and 78.5 percent was not in a leadership position. Regarding educational level, 38.4 percent had a bachelor's degree or higher, 16.0 percent finished supplementary secondary education, and the remaining 45.6 percent graduated from secondary schools or lower. Those who returned the survey were representative of the organization at large ( $N = 178$ ) with regards to gender (68% male) and age (57.9% younger than 45 years).

Participants were asked to describe the impact of the merger on their personal job, and to respond to a series of questions regarding the change. Data were obtained through a survey in the name of a major academic institution, explaining that the questionnaire was conducted in the context of a research project on organizational change. In both organizations, the questionnaires were distributed and collected by the participating organization via a closed envelope to guarantee confidentiality. Anonymity was assured, respondents were informed that there were no right or wrong answers, and they were asked to answer as honestly as possible.

### **2.7.2 Measures**

To ensure adequate measurement of each variable, previously established multi-item scales are used. Questionnaires were administered in the respondents' native language (Dutch). In line with Brislin's (1980) recommendations, questionnaires were first translated in Dutch by one of the publishing authors, followed by the back-translation by an independent researcher. The means, standard deviations and reliability estimates (Cronbach, 1951) for all of the study variables are reported in Table 2.1. As all reliabilities are above the threshold of .6, they are considered acceptable (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Unless mentioned otherwise, all items are rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).



Table 2.1: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Perceived change impact	3.24	1.46	(.80)					
2. Quality change communication	4.05	1.60	.35**	(.89)				
3. Employee participation	2.96	1.59	.30**	.40**	(.82)			
4. Formalization climate	2.86	0.52	.03	.07	.05 <sup>†</sup>	(.65)		
5. Involvement-oriented climate	2.31	0.75	.63**	.49**	.34**	.1	(.87)	
6. Affective commitment to change	3.36	1.74	.56**	.44**	.43**	-.09	.46**	(.92)

*Note.* Alpha coefficients are presented on the diagonal in parentheses. For management function, 0 = no and 1 = yes.

<sup>†</sup>  $p < .10$ , \*  $p < .05$  and \*\*  $p < .01$ .

***Affective commitment to change.*** Affective commitment to change was measured using the six-item affective commitment to change scale of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Example items are “I believe in the value of this change” and “This change serves an important purpose”.

***Quality change communication.*** Quality change communication and employee participation were included as focal aspects of the organizational change processes. Quality change communication was assessed with the scale originally developed by Miller et al. (1994) and previously adapted by Wanberg and Banas (2000). The scale consists of four items. A sample item is “The information provided to me has adequately answered my questions about the changes”.

***Employee participation.*** Employee participation was measured with a three-item adapted scale, originally developed by Wanberg and Banas (2000). A sample item is “I have given input for the decisions being made about the future of the organization”. Both employee participation in decision-making and change communication have previously been studied together as indicators of change fairness (Caldwell et al., 2004). Hence, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis to test whether they are separate constructs in our study. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation on the seven items resulted in two factors, accounting for 75.50 percent of the variance. The four items assessing quality change communication loaded on one factor (factor loading  $\geq .79$ ), and the three items assessing employee participation loaded on the second factor (factor loading  $\geq .82$ ). None of the items had a loading of above .40 on both factors, and we conclude that both constructs are distinctly different (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The items and factor loadings are provided in Appendix B.

***Psychological climate.*** Two dimensions of climate were measured using the organizational climate measure, developed by Patterson et al. (2005). In the present study, respondents were presented with eleven randomized statements, measuring the level of formalization (five statements) and involvement (six statements) in their work unit. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which the statement is a correct description of the current work climate in their work unit (from 1 = definitely false to 4 = definitely true). Example items are: “It is considered extremely important here to follow the rules” (formalization climate) and “Management involve people when decisions are made that affect them” (involvement-oriented climate). Whereas change communication and the opportunity for employee participation will be dependent on the change agent leading the change initiative, the work unit climate will be defined by the work unit leader. Hence, when both leaders (change and work unit) are different, we expect there to be a variation between the psychological climate and the process indicators.

***Control variables.*** Previous research indicates the importance of the perceived impact of the changes on change commitment (Fedor et al., 2006). Hence, perceived change impact for the affected work unit was included as a control variable in our analysis. This was measured using a four-item consequence of change scale of Caldwell et al. (2004). A sample item for this measure is “This change has made my unit less effective” (reverse coded). Ratings are on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Additionally, four demographic control variables were included. First, as older individuals are expected to be less positive about change (Posthuma & Campion, 2009), age in years was added. Second, we controlled for management position (0 = no; 1 = yes), given that managers have better access to information and more opportunity to participate in the change process than non-managerial employees. Third, we controlled for organizational tenure as individuals with a long history within the organization may have more difficulty with organizational change (0 = < 10y; 1 = > 10y). Last, gender was examined for its potential relevance (0 = male; 1 = female), since the dominant presence of men in the police could limit the women employee participation during change, as a relative minority.

### 2.7.3 Analyses

Table 2.1 reports variable descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) and zero-order correlations. The correlation between quality change communication and employee participation is moderate ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ), which was expected since they both fit within the

broader concept of change fairness. Quality change communication and employee participation positively relate to affective commitment to change ( $r = .44$  and  $r = .43$ ,  $p < .01$ ), which is in line with Hypotheses 1a and 1b. Next, involvement-oriented climate positively correlates with affective commitment to change ( $r = .46$ ,  $p < .01$ ), possibly supporting Hypothesis 2b. Last, both quality change communication and employee participation correlate significantly with involvement-oriented climate ( $r = .49$  and  $r = .34$ ,  $p < .01$ ), indicating possible support for Hypothesis 3b. With regards to the control variables, perceived change impact correlates positively with quality change communication ( $r = .35$ ,  $p < .01$ ), employee participation ( $r = .30$ ,  $p < .01$ ), involvement-oriented climate ( $r = .63$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and affective commitment to change ( $r = .56$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This suggests that using this measure as a control variable will result in a conservative test of our hypotheses.

## 2.8 RESULTS

Six hierarchical linear multiple regression analyses are conducted to test the direct, mediation and moderation effects of quality change communication, employee participation and psychological climate on affective commitment to change. The results are reported in Table 2.2.

To ensure appropriateness of the ordinary least square models (OLS), we tested for linearity of the relationships, independence of the explanatory variables, normality of the distributions, constant variation of the errors, and possible outliers influencing the results. First, for all six models, the plots show that estimating a linear relationship between the explanatory and dependent variable is appropriate. Next, all variance inflation factors are below two for all variables in the different models (with the exception of the moderation coefficients), indicating that multicollinearity is not an issue. Third, the normal probability plots show a reasonable fit, confirming that the assumption of normality is satisfied. Fourth, residual plots versus fitted values give a random pattern, validating the assumption of constant error variation. Finally, only one influential outlier was identified. Since no irregularities in the respondent's answers were found, this was considered to be a legitimate case. As the probability that this single outlier would influence the validity of the model was considered limited, this entry remained in the data. All six models provide a good fit for the data, with an adjusted  $R^2$  ranging from .33 for Model 3b to .51 for Models 1, 3 and 4.

Table 2.2: Results from hierarchical linear regression

Variable	Affective commitment to change				Quality change communication	Employee participation
	Mod. 1	Mod. 2	Mod. 3	Mod. 4	Mod. 3a	Mod. 3b
Organization	.24**	.16*	.22**	.21**	-.30**	.18
Gender	-.13 <sup>†</sup>	-.13 <sup>†</sup>	-.13 <sup>†</sup>	-.12	.03	-.04
Age	.10	-.03	-.09	-.11	.16	.17 <sup>†</sup>
Organizational tenure	-.17*	-.25**	-.18*	-.18*	-.20*	-.17 <sup>†</sup>
Management function	.14 <sup>†</sup>	.26**	.14 <sup>†</sup>	.14 <sup>†</sup>	.27**	.40**
Change impact	.35**	.35**	.31**	.32**	.11	.06
Quality change comm.	.26**		.24**	-.01		
Employee participation	.13		.12	.86 <sup>†</sup>		
Formalization climate		-.09	-.09	.03	-.00	.04
Involvement climate		.20*	.09	.05	.36**	.24*
Formalization climate *				.29		
Quality change comm. *				-.85 <sup>†</sup>		
Formalization climate *						
Employee participation *						
Involvement climate *						
Quality change comm. *						
Involvement climate *						
Employee participation *						
Overall model F	1578**	13.37**	12.80**	9.40**	8.76**	8.10**
R <sup>2</sup>	.54	.50	.55	.57	.40	.38
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.51	.47	.51	.51	.36	.33
R <sup>2</sup> change	.07**	.03 <sup>†</sup>	.08**	.02	.08**	.04*

For organization, 1 = largest organization and 2 = smaller organization. For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For age, 1 = < 25y, 2 = 26y - 35y, 3 = 36y - 45y, 4 = 46y - 55y and 5 = > 55y.

<sup>†</sup> p < .10, \* p < .05 and \*\* p < .01.

VIF < 2 for all variables.

An overview of the results is presented in Figure 2.2.

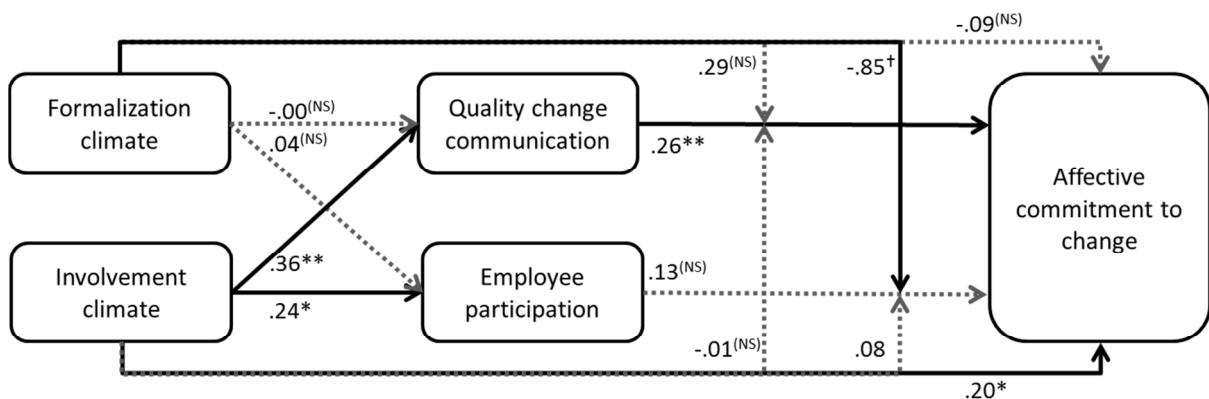


Figure 2.2: Path coefficients of overall model (standardized regression coefficients)

The results indicate that quality change communication contributes significantly and partially to affective commitment to change ( $\beta = .26, p < .01$ ), implying that Hypothesis 1a is supported. There is no significant contribution of employee participation to affective commitment to change, however. Hence, Hypothesis 1b is not supported. Model 2, testing Hypotheses 2a and 2b, reveals that an involvement-oriented climate is significantly positively associated with affective commitment to change ( $\beta = .20, p < .05$ ). Hence, Hypothesis 2b is fully supported. Individuals who perceive a high involvement work climate report high affective commitment to change. Comparison of Model 2's adjusted  $R^2$  (.47) with Model 1 ( $R^2 = .41$ ) suggest that quality change communication and employee participation are more important than the climate variables in explaining affective commitment to change. No support is found for the relationship between formalization climate (H2a) and affective commitment to change.

In Models 3, 3a and 3b, we apply the criteria defined by Baron and Kenny (1986) to analyze if quality change communication and employee participation mediate the relationship between psychological climate and affective commitment to change. To test the overall significance of the mediation we use bootstrapping as recommended by Fritz and MacKinnon (2007). This procedure has been suggested for testing the significance of indirect effects, especially with smaller sample sizes, because it comes without assumptions regarding underlying sampling distributions (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Using the 'INDIRECT' SPSS macro of Preacher and Hayes (2008), we construct bias-corrected confidence intervals around the product coefficient of the indirect (mediated) effect. The product coefficient is based on the size of the relationship between an involvement-oriented climate, as the explanatory variable, and quality change communication and employee participation, as the mediating variables, and the relationship between the latter two constructs and affective commitment to change. In support of Hypothesis 3b, we find that quality change communication fully mediates the relationship between an involvement-oriented climate and affective commitment to change, as detailed in Figure 2.3.

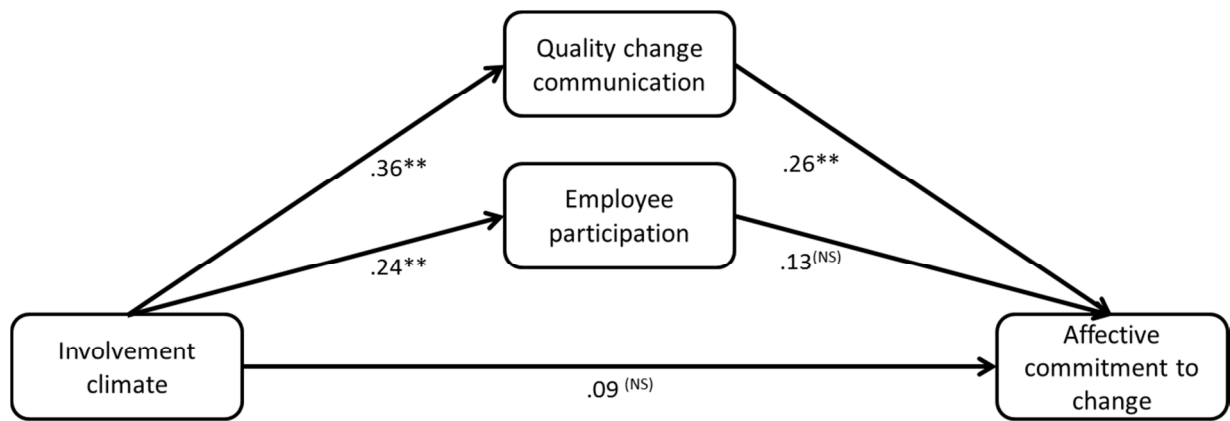


Figure 2.3: Path coefficients of the hypothesized mediation (standardized regression coefficients)

The indirect effect ( $\beta = .11$ ,  $p < .05$ ) can be attributed entirely to quality change communication. The indirect effect through employee participation is not significant, implying that our results do not support Hypothesis 3a.

With regards to the moderating effect of climate on the relationship between the two change process variables and affective commitment to change, we find marginal support for Hypothesis 5a, as illustrated in Figure 2.4A.

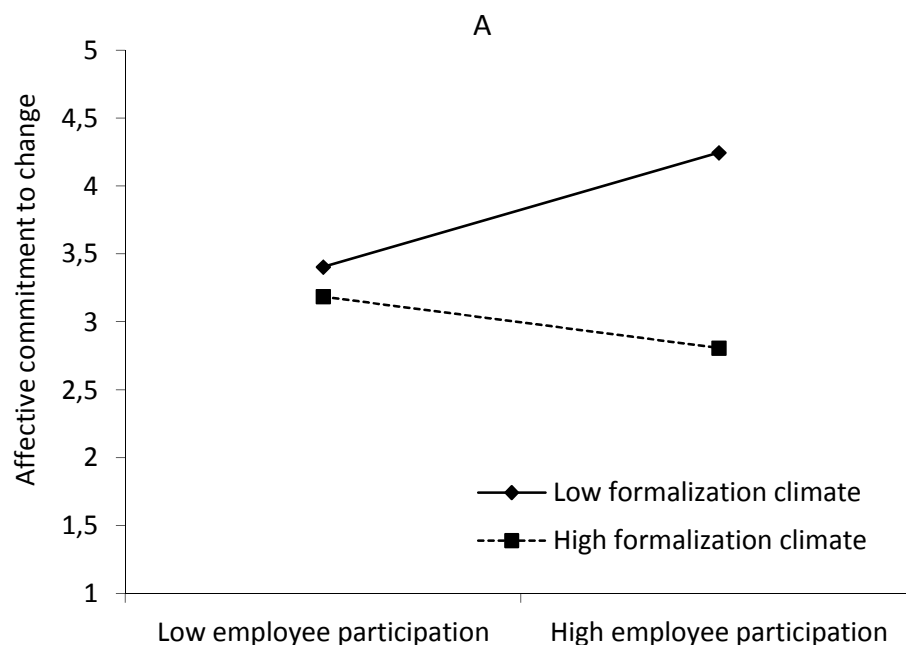


Figure 2.4A: Affective commitment to change as a function of employee participation and formalization climate

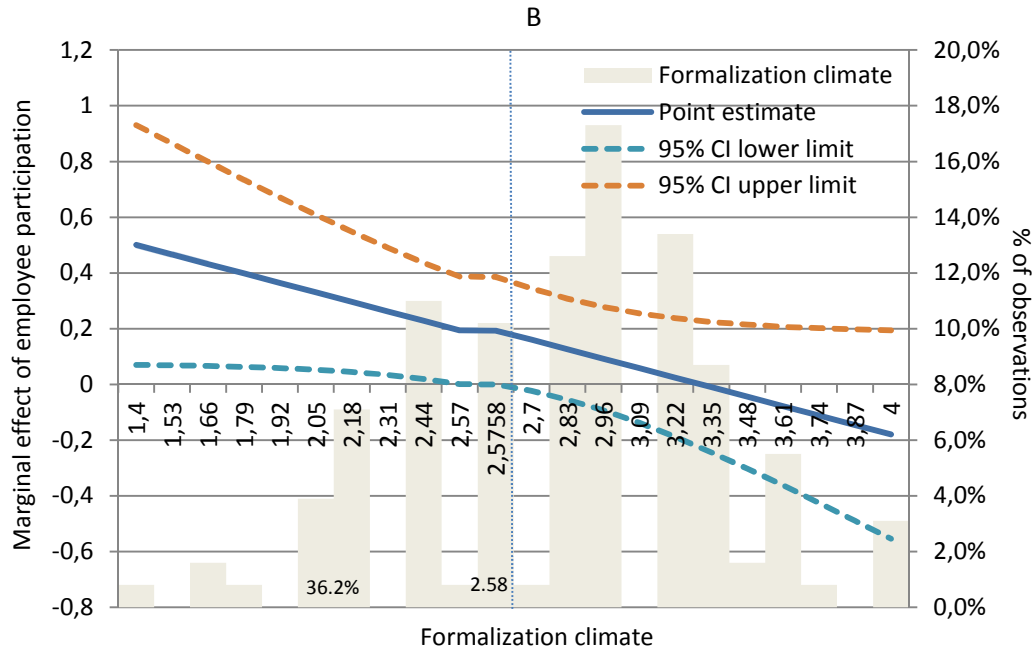


Figure 2.4B: Johnson-Neyman region of significance for the conditional effect of employee participation at values of formalization climate.

The results show that the interaction between employee participation and formalization climate negatively and significantly impacts affective commitment to change ( $\beta = .86, p < .10$ ). We probed this interaction to define the Johnson-Neyman significance regions (Bauer & Curran, 2005; Hayes, 2012). Figure 2.4B shows the region for which the interaction between employee participation and formalization climate is significant i.e., when both 95 percent bootstrap confidence intervals are above or below zero. In our sample, the marginal effect of employee participation on affective commitment to change is significant for 36.2 percent of the respondents, who report a formalization climate below 2.58 on a 5-point scale. Below this threshold, the higher the formalization climate, the more employee participation will reduce affective commitment to change. No support was gained for H4a, H4b and H5b.

## 2.9 DISCUSSION

Employee commitment and motivation is a critical factor for the success of change initiatives (Oreg, Michel, & By, 2013), and this study focuses on antecedents of affective commitment to change. We examined the impact of two dimensions of organizational climate, and studied the interaction with quality change communication and employee participation.

Outcomes from linear multiple regression analyses of a sample of 134 Belgian police officers demonstrate that an involvement-oriented climate enhances affective commitment to change, and that this effect is fully mediated by quality change communication. Additionally, we find that employee participation reduces affective commitment to change in a highly formalized climate. Contrary to our expectations, formalization climate and employee participation do not directly impact affective commitment to change. Our hypotheses on the interaction between an involvement-oriented climate and employee participation, as well as our propositions that both dimensions of climate would moderate quality change communication are not confirmed. Below, we offer explanations for non-expected results, and discuss implications for research and practice.

First, the lack of a significant direct effect of employee participation on affective commitment to change could be dependent on our operationalization of employee participation. We consider quality change communication as a separate aspect of the change process, although greater access to information has been highlighted as a benefit of employee participation (Holt et al., 2007). Indeed, previous studies reporting positive results of participation did not single out the effects of improved quality change communication (Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Callan, 2006; Bouckennooghe, Devos, & Van den Broeck, 2009; Holt et al., 2007; Lok et al., 2005). Post-hoc analyses provide some support for this explanation. The results from bootstrapping (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007) show that the direct effect of employee participation is fully mediated by quality change communication. Hence, this suggests that although employee participation offers the opportunity to influence the outcome of the change, our respondents particularly value that their questions about the change are better answered thanks to their participation in the change process. To provide more insight into this dynamic, future research could include increased control and reduced uncertainty as intervening mechanisms.

Additionally, the lack of direct effect of employee participation on affective commitment to change might be explained by the timing of employee participation. As we surveyed the degree of perceived participation after the implementation, we may expect that workers refer mainly to their involvement during the later phases of the project. Previous research indicates that the impact of participation will differ depending on the change phase. According to Johnson-Cramer et al. (2003), employee involvement early in the design phase contributes considerably more to commitment than in a later stage of the implementation process. Likewise, it is likely that employees refer to communication during the later phases of the project. Furthermore, one could expect that individuals in different roles (first-line



manager, change agent, target group, communication expert, et cetera) may feel different towards the change. Hence, studies focusing on change communication and employee participation, which separate different roles during organizational change, would benefit from a longitudinal design.

Second, our results do not confirm our assumption that formalization climate negatively impacts affective commitment to change. Although theory generally predicts this negative relationship, some researchers have emphasized the need of a clear purpose and explicit work procedures, inherent to a highly formalized climate, for a successful introduction of organizational change (Ettlie, Bridges, & O'Keefe, 1984; Evan & Black, 1967), which might explain our results. Future research could study the underlying mechanisms to provide a deeper understanding of the impact of formalization climate on attitudes towards change. Finally, of the hypothesized interactions, our results only deliver limited support for the fit hypotheses. Only the interaction between employee participation and formalization climate was marginally significant. A possible reason for the lack of findings is that other moderating variables are more relevant, such as change phase (Isabella, 1990), content (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) or pacing (Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2004). Alternatively, as our sample consists of two police organizations, the variation in climate could be too limited. Previously, studies in both police organizations and public organizations found a strong focus on formalization and hierarchy, which might have impacted our results (Ford et al., 2003; Greene, 2000; Parker & Bradley, 2000).

Overall, these findings have implications both for scholarship and practice. For researchers, on the one hand, our findings indicate that although employee participation has been advocated as one of the key factors associated with successful organizational change, the effect of high-quality change communication during organizational change might be more important. Future research could include the different mechanisms through which employee participation impact attitudes towards change to confirm our findings in different settings. Additionally, our results highlight the relevance of climate as a contextual variable during organizational change, both as an antecedent and a moderator of change-specific processes.

For practitioners, on the other hand, our findings call for an integrative approach to organizational transformations. The current budgetary challenges in police organizations create additional constraints for HR practitioners. Their added value is analyzed in detail and administrative HR functions are, as much as possible, automated and outsourced. Other functions such as employee evaluation and mentoring are being delegated to the functional departments (while supported by HR professionals). This creates the opportunity for HR to

perform strategic functions as business partner and change agent. During change, we propose to focus on quality of change communication, rather than on employee participation (which is often more costly), which will limit the cost of organizational change. We suggest that planned investments in employee participation during the change itself are oriented towards creating an involvement climate instead.

## 2.10 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As any study, this research has strengths as well as limitations, which suggest avenues for further research. First, our study looks at the same type of organizational change in two similar professional organizations. This focus excludes the potential influence of external industry factors, enabling a direct analysis of the relationship between internal context, change process, and affective commitment to change. On the negative side, the focus on mergers in police organizations entails that caution should be exercised in generalizing these findings to other contexts. Hence, our study has to be replicated in other organizations and professions. Second, although *ex-ante* measures are taken to limit the risk that common-method variance artificially inflates correlations, independent and dependent variables are measured from the same single-informant source. Hence, common-method variance cannot completely be ruled out. In future work, it would be useful to include outcome data from other sources.

Third, causality cannot be tested in the current study, due to the cross-sectional design. Hence, reciprocal relations could be found between the variables in the model. One could state that individuals who are more committed to change, will report higher quality change communication and employee participation. They may perceive to be better informed (as a way to reduce cognitive dissonance) or they may perceive to have been part of the decision-making (to feel part of a successful endeavor). Similarly, one could envision that affective commitment to change alters the perception of organizational climate. Employees highly committed to the change may perceive the climate as more supportive of organizational change, and hence be more involvement-oriented. Additionally, one could consider that climate evolves, and that the answers of the employees refer to the climate at a different point in time. Climate, however, is based on inferences of the employees, which are based on policies, practices, routines and procedures in the organization. As such, climate encompasses existing practices across diverse organizational activities. Because of the diversity and the implicit nature of these practices, the climate of an organization is very difficult to alter

(Schneider et al., 1996). The changes in the current study were company-wide, but did not target to alter the level of involvement-orientation or formalization. Hence, we expect that alterations in climate, if they occurred, would have been small and would have had a limited impact on the results. In future research, longitudinal analysis would increase the robustness of our findings by explicitly testing for causalities and time-effects. Additionally, scholars found reciprocal relations between psychological climate and affective variables such as organizational well-being and job satisfaction (James et al., 2008). Future studies could investigate if this reciprocity also exists in the context of organizational change.

Fourth, it would be interesting to study the impact of organizational climate, in addition to psychological climate, in a multi-level study. Fifth, no significant relationships were found with respect to the impact of formalization climate, possibly due to the high climate strength in our pair of police organizations. A broader study including a multitude of organizational climates might find relationships, confirming or rejecting our hypotheses. Last, only a limited number of individual characteristics were included in our study. Future studies may, for example, include individual orientations towards change or leadership, as these can define individual expectation patterns which influence the success of organizational change.

### **3 MATCHMAKING IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: DOES EVERY EMPLOYEE VALUE PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP? AN EMPIRICAL STUDY.**

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Although leadership is generally considered an important lever to increase commitment during organizational change, empirical research has yet to unravel many of the underlying mechanisms. In this paper, we propose that the strength of the impact of participative leadership on affective commitment to change will be contingent on employees' orientation towards leadership. The results of our empirical study in two police organizations do not show a significant main effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change. We find evidence, however, for our assumptions concerning two of three orientations towards leadership. Individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership indicate lower affective commitment to change for increased participative leadership. In contrast, employees with high development orientation towards leadership report higher affective commitment to change associated with increased participative leadership.

**Key words:** organizational change, participative leadership, orientation towards leadership, affective commitment to change

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present study analyzes the effect of participative leadership on affective commitment towards two mergers in police organizations. These mergers have been the first large-scale organizational transformations since the reform of the Belgian Police in 2001 (Lemmens, 2011, June 1), and are critically followed by the entire Belgian police as they are considered the first of many to come. Due to the retirement of the baby boomers, maintaining the local police forces at this current strength will increase the financial contribution of the Belgian municipalities with, on average, 17.07 percent by 2017 (Van Heddeghem, 2012). As a result, many police forces consider mergers to reduce operational costs. They aim to integrate staff functions such as finance and HR, and generate synergies through economies of scale for primary functions such as intervention, neighborhood policing and investigation.

Studies in the field of organizational change are increasingly focusing on individual workers, as employees have been found to play an essential role in the success of organizational change (Donahue & O'Leary, 2012; Oreg et al., 2013). Our study considers affective commitment to change, which previously has been associated with multiple positive outcomes such as supportive behavior during the change, overall job satisfaction and retention (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Neves, 2009; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). For the police, as for other public organizations, the benefits of affective commitment to change go beyond the added value to the organization. The positive effects may contribute to people's experiences with government services, and hence might affect the perception of the agency as a legitimate entity (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2012).

Leadership of change is probably one of the most critical levers to achieve successful organizational transformation (Ahn, Adamson, & Dornbusch, 2004; By, 2005). Effective leadership practices are required to successfully introduce changes to inspire, motivate and empower those who are affected (Herold et al., 2008). Participative leadership during organizational change has generally proved an effective way to increase employees' supportive behavior during organizational change. The strength of the relationship between participation and positive outcomes, however, has been found to differ, depending on the selected moderator (Lines & Selart, 2013; Vakola, Armenakis, & Oreg, 2013). In the current study, we propose that the impact of participative leadership on affective commitment to change will depend on employees' orientation towards leadership, or the reflection of individuals' beliefs about the nature of leadership (Hiller, 2005).

The current research aims to advance the literature in at least two ways. First, although leadership is considered a key variable during organizational change (By, 2005), the growing number of studies that integrate the leadership and organizational change literatures still have to unravel many of the dynamics through which leadership can enhance the success of organizational change (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005; Herold et al., 2008; Hill, Seo, Kang, & Taylor, 2012; Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Oreg & Berson, 2011). In our study, we introduce orientation towards leadership as a novel moderator to offer a more profound understanding of the relationship between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. Second, we contribute to the public administration literature by focusing on police forces. Insight into organizational change in a policing context will not only be interesting for other safety and security organizations, but also for other public administrations as they operate under similar political, legal and budgetary constraints. Figure 3.1 depicts our model.

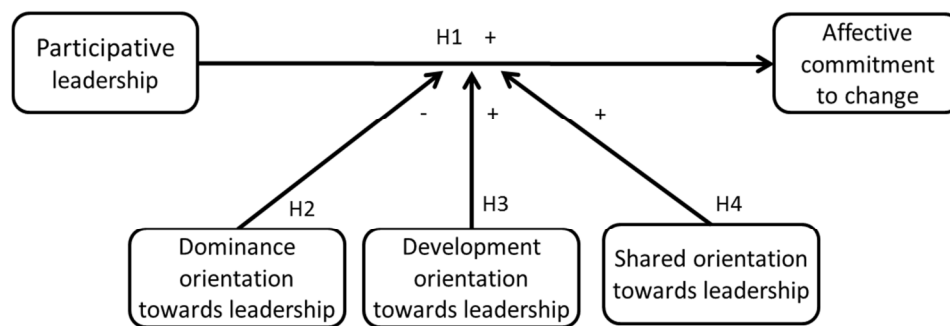


Figure 3.1: Research framework

In the first part of the article, we develop hypotheses on the direct and moderated effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change. Next, we describe our research design, data and measures. The results of our regressions are then presented. Finally, we discuss the implications of our findings for theory and practice, and conclude with the study limitations.

### 3.2 AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO CHANGE AND PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP

Affective commitment to change is steadily gaining ground as a critical success factor for effective organizational transformation (Meyer & Hamilton, 2013). Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) defined commitment to change as “a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change

initiative". In their three-component model, which received considerable empirical support (Choi, 2011), they identified affective commitment to change as the "desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits", continuance commitment to change as "a recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the change", and normative commitment to change as "a sense of obligation to provide support for the change" (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002, p. 475). In our research, we studied affective commitment, as this dimension has been found to be the most effective in generating support for the organizational change (Meyer & Hamilton, 2013). Additionally, in a previous study, transformational leadership and change leadership positively impacted affective commitment to change (Herold et al., 2008).

Participative leadership allows workers to have input regarding the proposed change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). It is generally associated with beneficial outcomes such as increased readiness for change, greater change acceptance and higher overall support for the change (Holt et al., 2007; Oreg et al., 2011; Russ, 2011; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). These results may be explained by at least three underlying dynamics. First, workers actively involved in designing, planning and executing the change have the opportunity to influence the outcome of the change, which provides them with a sense of agency and control. Next, the interactive process during participation creates the opportunity for voicing concerns and for the consideration of input, which will affect the perception of fairness and the feeling of being respected (Korsgaard et al., 1995). Last, participation facilitates organizational sense-making by triggering employees to change their existing attitudes and beliefs through the interaction with change agents and other change recipients. It challenges individuals to open up and not to interpret communication based on existing predispositions (Weick et al., 2005). Hence, we propose that participative leadership will positively impact affective commitment to change.

*Hypothesis 1 (H1): Participative leadership during organizational change will positively impact affective commitment to change*

### **3.3 ORIENTATION TOWARDS LEADERSHIP AS A POTENTIAL MODERATOR**

Based on individual differences theory, we propose that specific individuals may react differently to participative leadership because of different cognitive structures. As Singer (1974) stated: "While the necessity for determining a 'one best' leadership style for the 'composite worker' is understandable from a financial and expediency standpoint, to assume

that all workers desire participation opportunities is to lack sensitivity to individual needs – the antithesis of the humanization that ardent proponents of participation advocate" (Singer, 1974, p. 359). Several empirical studies underscore this line of thought. First, Neumann (1989), for example, found that 67 percent of the employees chose not to participate in organizational decision-making processes. Second, the study of Wanberg and Banas (2000) indicated that employees low in resilience do not enjoy opportunities for participation. Third, Maynard et al. (2007) found that some workers even actively resist the implementation of involvement-based processes.

We propose that differences in orientations towards leadership, influencing a person's leadership preferences, will impact the effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change. According to Hiller (2005), leadership involves processes and actions, and individuals are likely to have differing views about which ones are important, and which ones should characterize leadership. These views or orientations towards leadership, which can be translated into implicit theories or paradigms, will impact the way individuals perceive and recognize leadership. Very much like implicit leadership theories, orientation towards leadership focuses on leadership as a framework that exists in the eye of the beholder, which can differ across individuals. But while implicit leadership theory analyzes the question 'what makes a person a leader', and translates this into qualities that leaders are expected to possess (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), orientation towards leadership zooms in on the paradigm behind the leader as a person, asking the question 'what is leadership'? The answer to this question is likely to guide leaders' and followers' attitudes and behaviors (Engle & Lord, 1997; Hiller, 2005) since individuals know reality in terms of the internal representations they construct (Schyns & Meindl, 2005).

Hiller (2005) developed a system for categorizing these mental frameworks regarding leadership based on Drath's (2001) orientations towards leadership. According to Hiller's (2005) classification, three fundamentally different worldviews about leadership can be distinguished. First, from a dominance orientation towards leadership approach, leadership is inherently linked to the most powerful person in the group, and is associated with authority and position as formal leader. Next, from a development orientation towards leadership perspective, leadership can be developed (independent of any formal assignment) and is closely related to influencing people as a way to increase and improve leadership skills. Third, from a shared leadership angle, leadership is the property of the group, being a process where group members collectively cooperate and make decisions (Hiller, 2005).



Individuals can grow in their orientation towards leadership, depending on the challenges they face. Dominance leadership answers to the need for clear guidance, provided by a solid leader. When team members have very different opinions, however, this leader will need to be flexible to embrace these differences, and to be capable of influencing team members to commit to a unified course of action – hence, the emergence of developmental leadership, proposing that leadership can evolve based on the interaction between leaders and followers. Very complex situations may not require the integration of different worldviews into an encompassing view, though, or this may not be possible. This will stimulate the emergence of a third view: shared leadership. The three orientations towards leadership provide an answer to different leadership challenges, and an individual may consider different views depending on the context and task at hand. For simple, rather self-evident problems, dominance leadership may be seen as the appropriate form; in contrast, for more complex tasks, development leadership, or even shared leadership, may be considered most effective.

Individual experiences and encounters with different challenges will impact their view on leadership. Organizational members who have worked in relatively stable contexts, where dominance leadership perfectly meets the needs, are expected to have a high dominance orientation towards leadership, and low development and shared leadership orientation. Individuals who were confronted with conflicting worldviews that could not be tackled by a single, appointed leader, however, are expected to develop alternative views on leadership. While they still accept dominance leadership as an appropriate style in stable conditions, they may believe that development or shared leadership is better for complex tasks such as organizational change. Therefore, one might expect that older workers or individuals in a management position will develop higher development and shared orientations towards leadership.

In line with the suggestion of Daly and Geyer (1994), we posit that the positive effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change will depend on the expectations of the follower. Hence, we put forward employees' orientation towards leadership as a moderating variable. We suggest that followers' framework about leadership will define their desired level of involvement, and impact the relationship between participative leadership and affective commitment to change based on two underlying mechanisms. On the one hand, we expect that the individuals' preference for structure and clear direction (House, 1996) will negatively impact the relation between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. On the other hand, we believe that the level of employees' desire for control (Burger, 1992) and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1995) will positively impact this relation.

First, individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership consider providing direction and facing adaptive challenges as the sole responsibility of the formal leader (Hiller, 2005). We expect these employees to prefer directive leadership during change. They favor a delineated change plan with a clear goal set by the leader, and do not want to be involved in decision-making (House, 1996). These direction-oriented individuals are likely to resent the lack of focus and clear course of action, inherent to a participatory process, and may become disengaged when requested to contribute (Russ, 2008).

*Hypothesis 2 (H2): There is a negative interaction between participative leadership and dominance orientation towards leadership. High participative leadership reduces affective commitment to change for individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership.*

Next, persons with high development orientation towards leadership believe that leadership can be developed as a skill-set in an interactive process with followers to negotiate influence (Hiller, 2005). They prefer to be involved as this will allow them to influence the leaders' behavior and the outcome of the change.

*Hypothesis 3 (H3): There is a positive interaction between participative leadership and development orientation towards leadership. High participative leadership increases affective commitment to change for individuals with high development orientation towards leadership.*

Third, employees with high shared orientation towards leadership (Hiller, 2005) move away from the idea of a leader and recognize leadership as a collective process. Every person in the team will be involved in the leadership process, implying that participation in decision-making is self-evident. Shared leadership enables individuals to take initiative, express one's abilities, while functioning in a team. As such it answers to their need for autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1995). We expect these employees to report higher affective commitment to change when called upon.

*Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is a positive interaction between participative leadership and shared orientation towards leadership. High participative leadership increases*

*affective commitment to change for individuals with high shared orientation towards leadership.*

### **3.4 METHOD**

#### **3.4.1 Research context**

This study tests our hypotheses by collecting data through an employee survey in two different police organizations. They are both the result of a merger seven and nine months prior to the survey respectively. The first police force (178 employees) is at service of the population, whereas the second force (20 employees) primarily delivers support to other police forces. Participants gave their opinion on different aspects of the change. First, they described the impact on their work in an open-ended question. Next, the perceived change impact, participative leadership and quality of the change communication were specified in close-ended questions. Additionally, they responded to items about their orientation towards leadership. The survey was distributed in name of a major academic institution, and confidentiality was assured. Of the 178 distributed surveys in the two organizations, 134 were returned completed. The average participant was male (65.7%), did not hold a management position (78.5%), was younger than 45 years (61.7%), and worked longer than 10 years in the organization (57.4%). Based on a comparison of the gender, age, and managerial level the respondents were representative for the organization at large (N = 178).

#### **3.4.2 Analyses**

Several precautions were taken to reduce common-method variance, such as using multiple end-points for Likert scales, randomizing items and including reversed items. The risk of common-method variance is lower in moderation models since respondents are unlikely to be guided by a mental model that correctly reflects the complex theorized relationships. Our model hypothesizes, for example, that a low score on dominance orientation towards leadership, combined with a high score on employee participation results in lower affective commitment to change. To confirm this presumption, we checked *ex-post* for common-method variance bias through the calculation of Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). No evidence for common-method variance was found. The exploratory factor analysis revealed eight factors, and the first factor only explained 23.40 percent of the variance.

### 3.4.3 Measures

The questions were translated in the respondents' native language (Dutch) by one of the publishing authors, and translated back into English by an independent researcher in an iterative process, to fine-tune the items. Before data collection, we checked the clarity of all items using a semi-structured interview with a member of one of the target organizations. Unless specified, all items regarding individual-level variables are rated on a seven-point scale, varying from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

***Affective commitment to change.*** Affective commitment to change was measured using the scale developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement on six statements. A sample item for this measure is "I believe in the value of this change". A Chronbach's alpha of .92 indicates that the scale is very reliable (see Table 3.1).

***Participative leadership.*** Participative leadership was measured with an adapted scale, originally developed by Wanberg and Banas (2000). Employees responded to three statements on their degree of participation during the change process. A sample item for this measure is: "I have exerted control over the changes that have been proposed and that are occurring". Chronbach's alpha is .82.

***Orientation towards leadership.*** Three orientation towards leadership scales, developed by Hiller (2005), were used. The respondents were presented with sixteen randomized statements measuring their dominance orientation towards leadership (4 statements), development orientation (4 statements) and shared orientation (8 statements). They were asked to which degree they agreed with the statements. Example items are: "Leadership and power are pretty much the same thing" (dominance), "Skills and abilities for leadership can be developed" (development) and "Leadership is the responsibility of everybody in a group" (shared). Chronbach's alpha is .68 for development orientation towards leadership, .69 for dominance orientation towards leadership, and .83 for shared orientation towards leadership. As these reliabilities were above the threshold of .6, they are considered acceptable (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 3.1: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Change impact	3.24	1.46	(.80)						
2. Quality change comm.	4.05	1.60	.35**	(.89)					
3. Participative leadership	2.96	1.59	.30**	.40**	(.82)				
4. Dominance OTL <sup>°</sup>	3.38	1.14	-.02	.08	-.06	(.69)			
5. Development OTL <sup>°</sup>	5.02	0.98	.26**	.15	.14	-.05	(.68)		
6. Shared OTL <sup>°</sup>	4.54	0.97	-.07	-.04	-.08	-.08	.18*	(.83)	
7. Affective commitment to change	3.36	1.74	.56**	.44**	.43**	-.01	.25**	-.08	(.92)

<sup>°</sup> OTL: orientation towards leadership.

*Note.* Alpha coefficients are presented on the diagonal in parentheses.

\*  $p < .05$  and \*\*  $p < .01$ .

**Control variables.** First, we controlled for quality change communication, which was measured using an adapted scale originally developed by Miller et al. (1994). A sample item of the four-item scale is “The information provided to me has adequately answered my questions about the changes” ( $\alpha = .89$ ). As participative leadership and quality change communication previously have been considered together as aspects of procedural fairness during organizational change (Caldwell et al., 2004), we conducted an explorative factor analysis on these seven items, using principal axis factoring with varimax rotation (see Appendix B). This resulted in two factors, accounting for 75.50 percent of the variance. The items assessing participative leadership load on the first factor (minimum factor loading = .79) and the items measuring quality change communication load on the second factor (minimum factor loading = .82). None of the items had a factor loading above .40 across the two factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).<sup>2</sup>

Next, we controlled for the perceived change impact, using the four-item consequence of the change scale ( $\alpha = .80$ ) developed by Fedor et al. (2006). A sample item is “This change has made my unit less effective” (reverse coded). Ratings are on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Finally, we included age, gender, management position and tenure, given that previous research reports significant relationships with attitudes towards change (Oreg, 2006; Vakola et al., 2013).

<sup>2</sup> The high factor loadings of the items might indicate multicollinearity. All bilateral correlations are below .79, however, and therefore we decided to use all items in the analyses. Additional robustness checks in AMOS, enabling covariance between quality change communication and employee participation showed that a two factor structure was indeed appropriate. Detailed analyses are available on request.

### 3.5 RESULTS

Table 3.1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations and alphas for the variables. The correlations indicate that employees were more committed to the change when they perceived the change impact as beneficial ( $r = .56, p < .01$ ). Additionally, quality change communication ( $r = .44, p < .01$ ) and participative leadership ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ) are positively related to affective commitment to change. Last, higher development orientation towards leadership ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ) was associated with increased affective commitment to change. The hypotheses were tested using moderated ordinary least squares regression analysis. For each model, we checked the assumptions of linearity of the relationships between independent and dependent variables, independence of the errors, homoscedasticity of the errors, and normality of the error distribution. No significant departures from these assumptions were found, nor did we find any influential outliers.

In each model (see Table 3.2), the demographic variables gender, age, organizational tenure and managerial position<sup>3</sup>, and the control variables organization, perceived change impact and quality change communication are entered first (Model 0), followed by participative leadership (Model 1), participative leadership and the three orientations towards leadership (Model 2), and the interaction effects between participation and orientations towards leadership (Model 3). The adjusted  $R^2$  ranges between .47 and .55, indicating a good fit for the data.

First, our results do not support Hypothesis 1, as we find no significant direct effect between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. We find evidence, however, for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Dominance orientation towards leadership negatively moderates the relationship between participative leadership and affective commitment to change ( $\beta = -.49, p < .05$ ). In contrast, the interaction between participative leadership and development orientation towards leadership positively impacts affective commitment to change ( $\beta = 1.23, p < .01$ ). Hypothesis 4 is not supported: no interaction between shared orientation towards leadership and participative leadership is found. The interaction effect of participative leadership and dominance orientation towards leadership on affective commitment to change is illustrated in Figure 3.2A. The conditional effect or simple slope of participative leadership for employees is depicted at both extremes of dominance orientation towards leadership, using the estimated coefficients from the model. The result shows a

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<sup>3</sup> Robustness checks including education and rank as additional demographic control variables did not change the hypothesized relations.

negative interaction of participative leadership with dominance orientation towards leadership.

Table 3.2: Stepwise linear regression analysis predicting affective commitment to change (standardized regression coefficients)

Variable	Model 0	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3 <sup>1</sup>
<i>Step 1</i>				
Organization	.26**	.24**	.25**	.24**
Gender	-.14*	-.13	-.14	-.17*
Age	-.08	-.10	-.12	-.14
Tenure	-.18*	-.17*	-.15	-.14
Management position	.18*	.14	.13	.09
Change impact	.40**	.36**	.35**	.34**
Quality change comm.	.29**	.26**	.24**	.21*
Dominance orientation towards leadership			.07	.34*
Development orientation towards leadership			.06	-.25*
Shared orientation towards leadership			.00	.08
<i>Step 2</i>				
Participative leadership		.13	.15	-.27
Participation x dominance orientation				-.49*
Participation x development orientation				1.23**
Participation x shared orientation				-.27
Overall model F	17.50**	15.78**	11.12**	11.04**
R <sup>2</sup>	.53	.54	.52	.61
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.50	.51	.47	.55
R <sup>2</sup> Change		.01	.03	.05**

\*  $p < .05$  and \*\*  $p < .01$ .

For organization, 1 = largest organization and 2 = smaller organization. For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For age, 1 = < 25y, 2 = 26y - 35y, 3 = 36y - 45y, 4 = 46y - 55y and 5 = > 55y. For organizational tenure, 0 = < 10y and 1 = > 10y. For management position, 0 = no and 1 = yes.

<sup>1</sup> The pattern is similar if the interaction terms are introduced separately.

Additionally, we formally probed this interaction by using the Johnson–Neyman technique (Bauer & Curran, 2005; Hayes, 2012), which mathematically derives the regions of significance for the conditional effect of dominance orientation towards leadership. We define the values within the range of the moderator, in which the association between participative leadership and change commitment is statistically different from zero. Figure 3.2B shows the coefficient estimates of participative leadership (y-axis) over the range of values of

dominance orientation towards leadership (x-axis) in our sample along with 95 percent bootstrap confidence intervals.

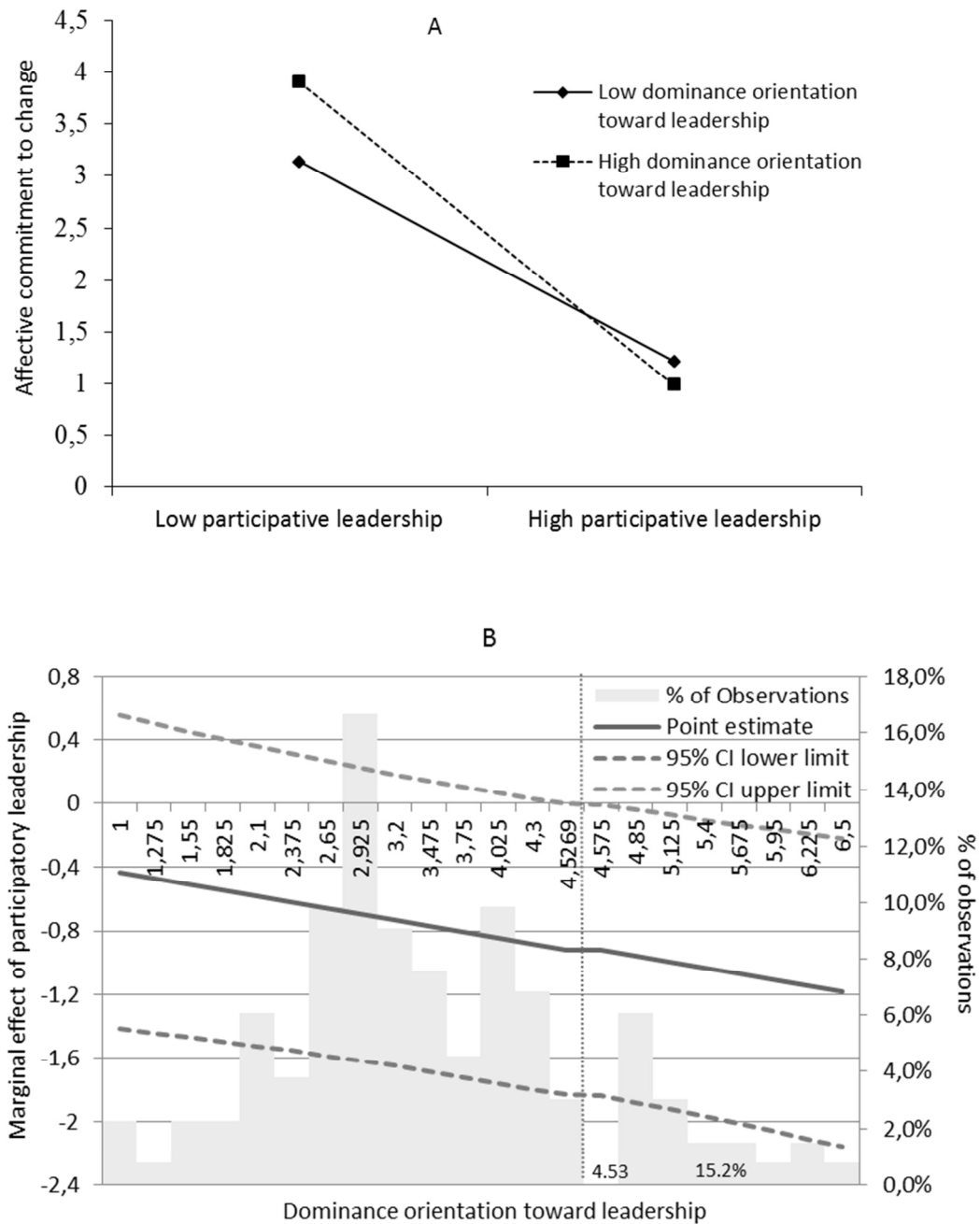


Figure 3.2: Change commitment as a function of participative leadership and dominance orientation towards leadership (A) and Johnson-Neyman region of significance for the conditional effect of participative leadership at values of dominance orientation towards leadership (B)



The conditional effect of participative leadership is significant when both confidence interval lines lie above or below zero. For our sample, the marginal effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change turns significantly negative when individuals report a dominance orientation towards leadership above 4.53 on a seven-point scale (15.2% of observations). Beyond this threshold, the higher an employee's dominance orientation, the more participative leadership will reduce affective commitment to change.

In contrast, the interaction between participative leadership and development orientation towards leadership positively impacts affective commitment to change, as depicted in Figure 3.3A. When formally probing this interaction using the Johnson-Neyman technique (Bauer & Curran, 2005; Hayes, 2012), the conditional effect of participative leadership is positive for individuals reporting a development orientation towards leadership above 4.61 on a seven-point scale (66.4% of observations) (see Figure 3.3B). Beyond this level, participative leadership will increase affective commitment to change, and this effect will be larger when employees report higher development orientation towards leadership.

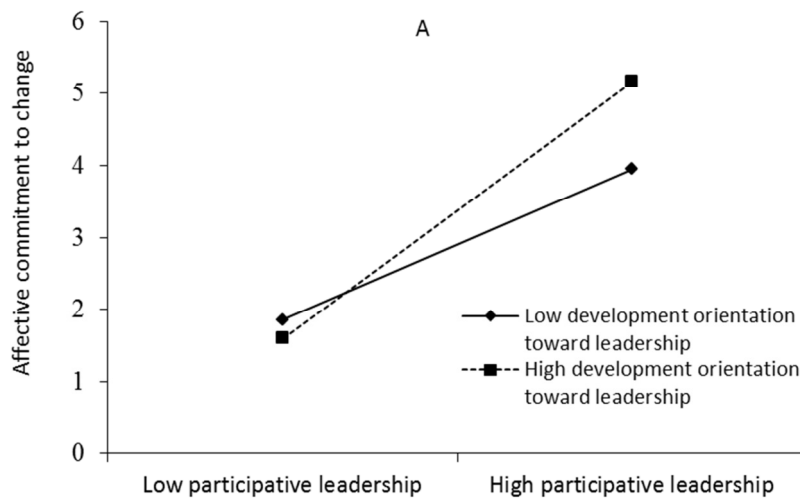


Figure 3.3A: Change commitment as a function of participative leadership and development orientation towards leadership.

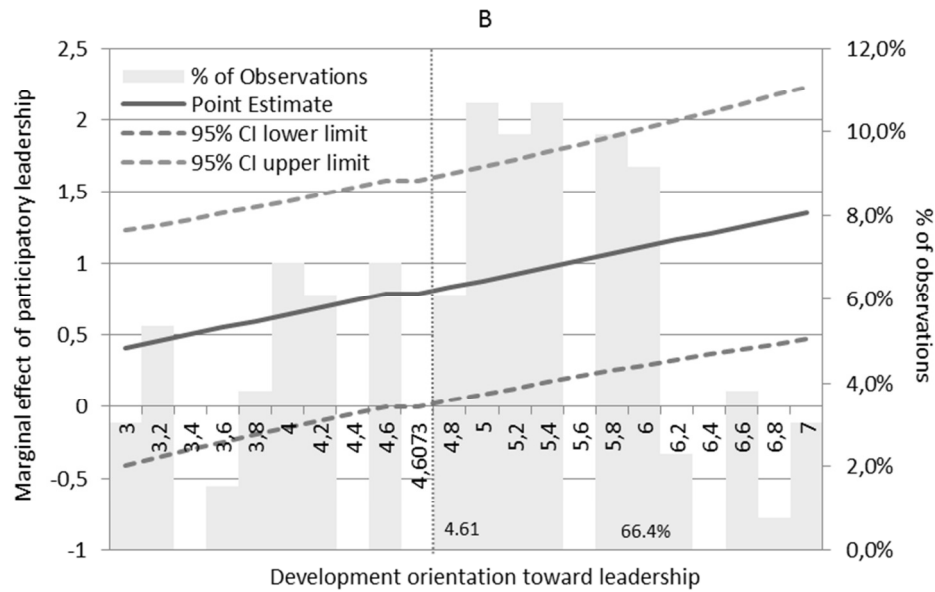


Figure 3.3B: Johnson-Neyman region of significance for the conditional effect of participative leadership at values of development orientation towards leadership (B)

### 3.6 DISCUSSION

Although participative leadership has been a popular subject in the change management literature, many interactions with individual characteristics remain to be uncovered. Results of this study reveal that the impact of participative leadership on affective commitment to change depends on followers' orientation towards leadership. Contrary to our expectations, there was no direct effect of participative leadership on affective commitment to change. Two of the three hypothesized interaction effects, however, were significant. Participative leadership reduced affective commitment to change for individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership, and contributed to affective commitment to change for individuals with high development orientation towards leadership.

First, the absence of any relation between participative leadership and affective commitment to change goes against general findings in the literature. A possible reason is that we included quality change communication as a control variable in our model. As such, we separated two aspects of procedural fairness (Caldwell et al., 2004), which was not the case in previous studies (Oreg et al., 2011). To test whether the lack of impact of participative leadership could be attributed to a mediating effect of quality change communication, we conducted additional post-hoc analyses (see

Figure 3.4). Results reveal full mediation of the relationship between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. Hence, overall, our respondents primarily seem to value their involvement in the change process because of improved access to information on the change, as suggested by Ashmos, Duchon, McDaniel, and Huonker (2002), and are less affected by alternative effects such as influence on the outcomes of the change, opportunity for voice or improved organizational sense-making.

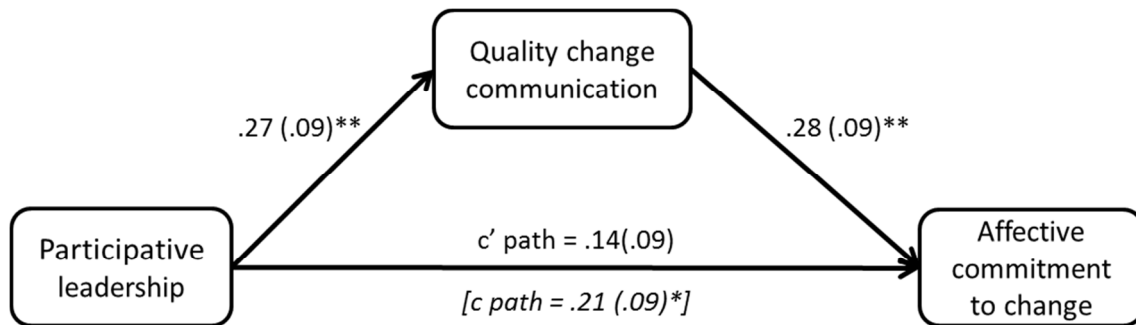


Figure 3.4: Path coefficients of the (mediated) post-hoc model<sup>4</sup>

Next, our results suggest that orientation towards leadership is a useful interacting variable when studying participative leadership. We find a distinct difference between workers who regard leadership to be the sole responsibility of the leader, and employees who consider that leadership can be developed in an interactive process of negotiating influence. Our results do not indicate a positive interaction effect of shared orientation towards leadership, however. Interesting paths to clarify this lack of significant effect, could include adding organizational climate at the organizational level, or self-efficacy at the individual level. Alternatively, intrinsic appeal, dependent on the match between organizational offering and individual preferences (Hannan, Carroll, & Polos, 2003), could be a useful construct in probing the interaction between participative leadership and leadership orientation. The offering can be translated into participative leadership, and individual preferences can be considered a consequence of leadership orientation. Applying intrinsic appeal is not self-evident, however, as intrinsic appeal typically refers to content (e.g., the extent of the organizational change), rather than process aspects (such as participative leadership), which previously have been considered an aspect of engagement (van den Oord, van Witteloostuijn,

<sup>4</sup> \*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$ . Overall significance of the indirect effect computed through bootstrapping is .08\* (Preacher & Hayes, 2004)

& Pólos, 2014). Studying the interaction between participative leadership and orientation towards leadership in this context could provide novel insights.

Overall, our findings show that leadership and followership are inseparably linked, which was already stated by Burns in 1978. Our results demonstrate that participative leadership during organizational change interacts with followers' fundamental views about leadership. Hence, from a theoretical point of view, we suggest that future researchers include orientation towards leadership in their quest for a better understanding of the impact of leadership at the individual level. It would be especially interesting to study the combined effect of the different orientations, as individuals can hold multiple orientations at the same time. The relatively small size of the current sample did not permit a similar sub-group analysis. From a practical perspective, our findings suggest that organizations should consider their workforce's orientation towards leadership when planning organizational change for two reasons. First, for individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership, the possible loss in affective commitment to change in the organization should be taken into account as an aspect of the cost of participation, together with the lengthier process, reduced control over the outcome, and (management) time spent on the negotiating process (Ashmos et al., 2002). Second, organizational leaders interested in maximizing participation in decision-making during change, to reap the benefits of shared problem-solving (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997), may want to develop workers' development orientation towards leadership, to secure affective commitment to change.

### **3.7 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The current study is based on cross-sectional data, and causal relations should be interpreted with care as they are deduced from theory rather than based on empirical findings. Additional longitudinal research is needed to confirm the direction of the relationship between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. Next, the use of self-reported data from a single survey raises the concern of common-method bias. Although several *ex-ante* measures were taken to reduce this risk and the Harman single factor test produced a multiple factor solution, this risk cannot be ruled out. Additionally, moderation effects were estimated, which reduces the likelihood that individual respondents were guided by a mental model that correctly reflects the theorized relationships. Still, some care should be taken in interpreting the results of these analyses. Third, our study was limited to mergers in two different police organizations, which provides a uniform context but which raises concerns

regarding the external validity. Hence, our design should be replicated in other sectors to check for generalizability.

We believe that this study offers a better insight into the impact of participative leadership during organizational change, despite its limitations. It highlights the importance of individual differences for a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms through which participative leadership impacts attitudes towards change. Additionally, it introduces orientation towards leadership as a valuable concept to increase our understanding of the interaction between leadership practices and individuals' expectations during change.

#### **4 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN THE FACE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE AGE, CHANGE CONSEQUENCES AND COMMITMENT TO CHANGE**

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##### **ABSTRACT**

Organizations are concerned with the impact of organizational change on employees' reactions towards the change itself, and their ongoing relationship with the organization. This study analyzes how perceived change consequences in three police organizations affect affective organizational commitment, and whether this relationship is explained by affective commitment to change. Additionally, we investigate the commonly held stereotype that older workers are more committed to the organization, but are less positive about change. The results show that perceived negative change consequences reduce affective organizational commitment, and that this relationship is fully mediated by affective commitment to change. Contrary to our expectations, however, older workers are not more committed to the organization, nor less committed to change than younger workers. Moreover, individuals above 55 years view the consequences of the change more positively than younger workers. Implications for practice and future research are discussed.

**Key words:** organizational change, affective commitment to change, affective organizational commitment, employee age.

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Organizational commitment, resulting in the willingness to exert extra effort on the behalf of the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), has been found to benefit performance in both public and private sector organizations (Kim, 2005; Meyer et al., 2002). However, organizational change, or any intended reconfiguration of organizational structures (Fernandez & Pitts, 2007), can negatively impact the strength of an individual's involvement and identification with an organization. As public organizations continuously aim to improve efficiency, effectiveness, economy and social equity – the '4E's' in service delivery – many are introducing organizational changes to achieve these goals (Andrews, Boyne, Law, & Walker, 2009; By & Macleod, 2008; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004).

The topic of organizational change is especially interesting when considered in view of the aging working population. Although the total European population is projected to grow with only 1.1 percent between 2010 and 2030, the percentage of older workers (55y or older) will increase with 15.5 percent in that same period while the percentage of younger workers will decrease with 16 percent (25y - 39y) (European Commission, 2005). A follow-up question is what this may imply for organizations. In their meta-study, Meyer et al. (2002) highlight that older employees are generally more committed to the organization. In contrast, older employees have been found less likely to accept change than their younger counterparts. They are believed to be more 'set in their ways', and hence more resistant to change (Cordery, Sevastos, Mueller, & Parker, 1993). Taken together, studying the impact of organizational change on affective organizational commitment is particularly relevant for this group of individuals. Can we keep the advantage of older workers' affective organizational commitment in the wake of organizational change? Our model is visualized in Figure 4.1.

Our contribution to the literature is threefold. First, although previous research has generated substantial insight into how organizational change affects organizational commitment (Elias, 2009; Fedor et al., 2006), we still lack information on how these variables work together. When organizational change fundamentally alters the way the organization is functioning, for example, higher affective commitment to change may be associated with lower affective organizational commitment. Second, although extant research on age stereotypes indicates that older people are more resistant to change (Posthuma & Campion, 2009), studies on the effect of age as a focal variable in organizational change have been limited. Hence, theory offering an explanation for the impact of age during organizational change is still ill-developed (Vakola et al., 2013).

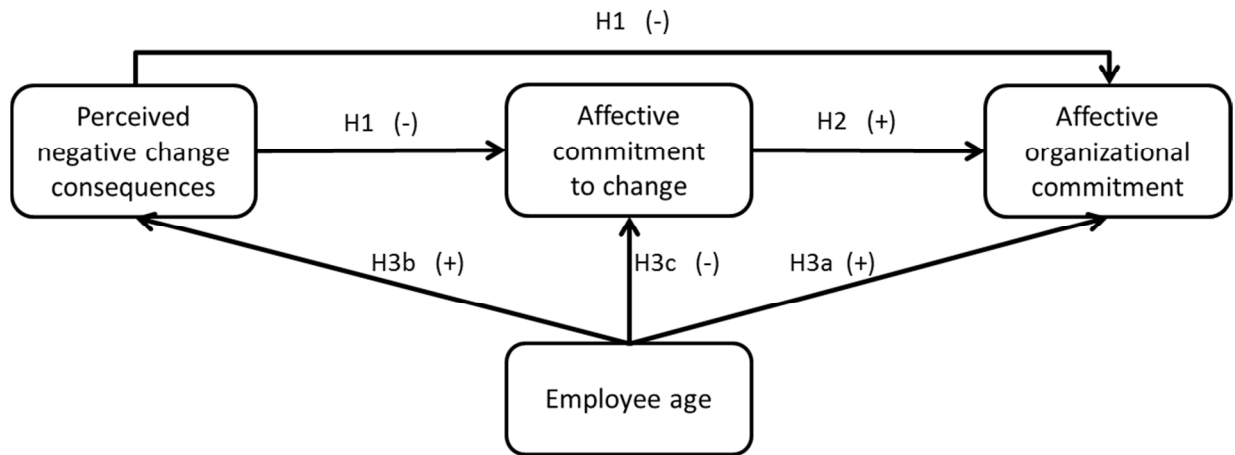


Figure 4.1: Conceptual model

Third, many researchers looked into the factors contributing to organizational member's reactions to change in the hope of improving the overall success rate of organizational transformations (Oreg et al., 2011). But although literatures dealing with reasons for and consequences of organizational members' reactions towards change have been quite extensive, this research has been given far less attention with regards to the public sector (Fernandez & Rainey, 2006; Kickert, 2013; Piening, 2012). This is important as several studies have indicated that organizational change impacts public organizations differently compared to private organizations (Nieto Morales, Wittek, & Heyse, 2013). Recent studies seem to overlook this difference (Isett, Glied, Sparer, & Brown, 2012; Liguori, 2012; Tummers, Steijn, & Bekkers, 2012). The majority of studies on organizational change in public administration did not include indicators of key outcomes of organizational change, such as organizational commitment. Moreover, most studies look at an U.S./Anglo-Saxon context (Kuipers et al., 2013). In the current study, we analyze the impact of organizational change on two types of commitment in three Belgian police organizations.

In what follows, we first describe both types of commitment included in this study. Next, we develop our hypotheses concerning the impact of perceived change consequences on both commitment variables and the hypothesized effects of age. Subsequently, we present our sample, data, measures and methods. The results are then presented, followed by a discussion and implications for theory and practice.



## 4.2 TWO LEVELS OF COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment has been the subject of ample research, and multiple underlying mechanisms have been put forward as drivers that will stimulate individuals to pursue courses of action that will benefit the organization as a whole, such as involvement, shared values and identification (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The three-component model of Meyer and Allen (1991) received much empirical support. This model consists of affective (desire to remain), continuance (perceived cost of leaving) and normative (perceived obligation to remain) commitment. The current study focuses on affective organizational commitment as this dimension correlates strongly and consistently with organizational and employee-relevant outcomes, such as higher performance, increased organizational citizenship behavior, employee health and lower actual turnover, which is not always the case for continuance and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

Although commitment has been conceptualized most frequently as employee's attachment to the entire organization, multiple foci of commitment are relevant (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Workers' commitment to change has become a key construct for scholars studying organizational change (Choi, 2011). High employee commitment to change will enhance her or his willingness to exert effort to turn organizational change into a success (Armenakis et al., 1993). Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) identify three distinct dimensions of commitment to change: affective, continuance and normative commitment to change. These facets reflect individuals' beliefs in the inherent benefits of the change (affective), the recognition of the cost associated with not supporting the change (continuance), and the sense of obligation to support the change (normative) (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002: 475). Previous findings stress the importance of affective commitment to change in predicting support for organizational change, higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (Ford et al., 2003; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Jaros, 2010; Neves & Caetano, 2009; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). In line with former research, the current study focuses on this dimension (Conway & Monks, 2008; Herold et al., 2008; Neves & Caetano, 2009).

Behavior can be influenced by commitments to multiple foci; The effect will be largest, however, when the focus of both behavior and commitment is the same. Commitment to change may elicit supportive behavior towards the organization, but the effect of organizational commitment will be much more important as this has the greatest psychological proximity (Meyer et al., 2007). Additionally, depending on the desired behavior, a different target of the commitment will be relevant, as commitment to one entity

could entail negative attitudes towards other foci of commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In the context of organizational restructuring to improve service quality, for example, workers strongly committed to the organizational aim of reducing operational costs could lose their identification with these organizational goals and values. This would happen when employees are committed to improving the service quality, irrespective of the associated costs. In this case, commitment to service quality, the goal of the change, would be at the expense of commitment to cost reduction, an aspect of affective organizational commitment. Hence, high affective commitment to this change could reduce individuals' affective organizational commitment. Additionally, organizational change can impact affective organizational commitment when it alters the relation of the individual with the organization. Even when individuals support the change, they might consider it as a breach of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). Hence, the change will then cause individuals to reconsider their relationship with the organization (Hui & Lee, 2000; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). Therefore, it is important for management to understand how affective commitment to change relates to affective organizational commitment.

Organizations that recently underwent important organizational change will benefit increasingly from individuals' affective commitment to change when this translates into affective commitment to the organization. However, few studies have simultaneously included both commitment types. The few exceptions are, first, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), who report that organizational commitment prior to the organizational change positively impacts commitment to change. Second, Fedor et al. (2006) study the impact of change fairness, change magnitude, locus of the change and impact on both change commitment and organizational commitment, although they ignore the relation between the latter pair of commitment types. Third, Elias (2009) analyzes the impact of growth need strength, locus of control and internal work motivation on affective organizational commitment, finding that this relation is (partially) mediated by commitment to change.

Especially in public organizations such as the police, where employees often spend their entire career because of the specific skillset and capabilities, workers' commitment to the organization is particularly important. These employees are less inclined to search for different employment and are more inclined to stay, even when demotivated.

### 4.3 CHANGE CONSEQUENCES FOR THE WORK UNIT

Although the perceived consequences of an important organizational change are expected to influence individual's reactions, previous research focused primarily on the characteristics of change processes or whether a change occurred (Caldwell et al., 2004). In the current study, we investigate whether the degree to which employees perceive a change to be hindering the performance of the work unit impacts employee affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to change. We expect perceived change consequences to have an effect on both types of commitment based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).<sup>5</sup> A negative perception of change consequences for the work unit will trigger negative employee responses against the originator of the organizational change in order to restore the balance (Gouldner, 1960; McNeely & Meglino, 1994). We argue that one of the employee reactions will be lower identification with the organization, which will result in reduced affective commitment to the organization. Additionally, the negative perception of the change consequences can be considered as a cost associated with the organizational change, which will reduce the change's added value (Blau, 1964) and will result in reduced affective commitment to change.

*Hypothesis 1 (H1): Perceptions of negative change consequences at the work unit level will negatively relate to both affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to change.*

Moreover, the strength of the reaction towards the organization, as originator of the change, will depend on workers' affective commitment to change, which is largely defined by the perceived value of the change. Therefore, we propose that the direct effect of perceived negative change consequences on affective organizational commitment will be mediated by affective commitment to change.

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<sup>5</sup> An alternative framework, underlying our hypotheses, is cognitive organizational theory (Hannan et al., 2007). They propose that there will be low actual appeal if intrinsic appeal is low. Hence, we expect that perceptions of negative change consequences (impacting intrinsic appeal) will lower affective commitment to change (actual appeal).

*Hypothesis 2 (H2): Affective commitment to change will fully mediate the relationship between perceived negative change consequences and affective organizational commitment.*

#### **4.4 EMPLOYEE AGE AND COMMITMENT**

In their literature review on age stereotyping, Posthuma and Campion (2009) report that older workers are viewed to be both more committed to the organization and more resistant to change. Theoretical arguments underlying these stereotypes can be drawn from two different literatures: career stage models and cognition research. First, evolving needs throughout different career stages (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Gould, 1979) can explain the difference in attitude towards the organization versus change. Older workers in the maintenance stage (> 44 years old) of their career are expected to have a higher need for stability and for stronger feelings of comfort in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Finkelstein, Burke, & Raju, 1995). These needs will create a stronger psychological attachment to their known environment, and hence increase affective organizational commitment. Additionally, older employees are presumed to be harder to train, less adaptable and less flexible, with a lower ability to learn (Finkelstein et al., 1995; Posthuma & Campion, 2009), all of which indicate that these individuals have a lower capacity to cope with change, and hence will be less committed to organizational changes.

Second, work on cognitive changes during adulthood and the distinction between crystallized and fluid intelligence (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004) can explain older employees' increased affective organizational commitment and reduced affective commitment to change. Crystallized intellectual capabilities embody experiential and educational knowledge, which both increase when people age. Hence, older employees might prefer environments where they can build on this knowledge, experiencing a stronger attachment and commitment to their current organization. In support of this, Warr (1997) suggests that older employees tend to prefer job security, and opportunities to utilize existing skills. Fluid intellectual abilities are associated with the processing of novel information, and findings indicate that fluid intelligence peaks around 25 years of age and declines thereafter. Hence, jobs and tasks characterized by novelty as induced by an organizational change will be more challenging for older employees, and might reduce the perceived value of the change and the older workers' affective commitment to change (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004).

Empirical findings generally support the age stereotypes that older individuals are more committed to the organization. With regards to the relationship between age and affective organizational commitment, previous findings in stable organizational contexts, not characterized by organizational change, confirm the belief that older employees have higher organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Gallie, Felstead, & Green, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Van Dalen, Henkens, & Schippers, 2010). The number of studies is limited, however, and Posthuma and Campion (2009) call for more research on the effect of age on different dimensions of work performance. Additionally, none of the previous studies focused on public organizations.

*Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Employee age will be positively related to affective organizational commitment.*

The stereotype indicating that older people are less positive about change as well, is generally confirmed in the literature. In support of the negative relationship between age and attitudes towards change, Cordery et al. (1993) find that public sector employees are less positive towards functional flexibility. Additionally, older individuals have been found to exhibit lower change orientation (Warr, Miles, & Platts, 2001) and lower openness to experience (McCrae et al., 1999). There are some contrasting findings, however, such as the study of Soto, John, Gosling, and Potter (2011) reporting higher openness to ideas of older individuals. Furthermore, Kunze, Boehm, and Bruch (2013) report that older employees have a lower resistance to change. These results, however, are based on a voluntary internet survey irrespective of the specific organizational context or an explicit change. Hence, we base our hypotheses on career stages and cognitive theories, which are generally supported in the literature. We expect that older employees perceive the consequences of organizational changes to be more negative, and therefore that their affective commitment to change will be lower *vis-à-vis* their younger counterparts.

*Hypothesis 3b (H3b): Employee age will be positively related to perceived negative change consequences for the work unit.*

*Hypothesis 3c (H3c): Employee age will be negatively related to affective commitment to change.*

## 4.5 METHOD

### 4.5.1 Research context

To test the proposed model, we distributed a total of 417 questionnaires via internal mail to the employees of three Belgian police organizations that underwent an important organizational change in the three years preceding data collection<sup>6</sup>. Participants were asked to describe the impact of the predefined organizational change on their personal job and to respond to a series of questions pertaining to their perceptions of and behavioral reactions to the change. They were informed that participation was voluntary and that the responses would remain confidential. Questionnaires were returned directly to the researchers. A total of 211 questionnaires was returned, implying an overall response rate of 50.6 percent. This response rate is comparable to average response rates in wide varieties of organizational settings (Baruch, 1999), as well as previous studies in police settings (Rafferty & Jimmieson, 2010).

The first police organization is the result of a merger between two geographically adjacent police areas, and entails a reorganization of the hierarchical structure as well as changes in individual responsibilities in all ranks. Of the 158 distributed surveys, 116 were returned completed, giving a 73.4 percent response rate. The second police organization as well is the result of a functional merger between two entities. In this case, individual responsibilities remained the same as before the merger, but the two entities moved to a new location and worked with new colleagues. Of the 20 distributed questionnaires, 18 were returned completed, producing a 90 percent response rate. In the third police organization, the hierarchical structure was altered, and individual employees in all ranks received new responsibilities and worked with other colleagues. Of the 239 questionnaires, 94 questionnaires were completed (39.7% response rate), of which 77 contained answers to the questions regarding the organizational change (32%).

To ensure anonymity, employee age data was collected in five categories – respondents' age distribution (N = 211) is as follows: < 25 years (2%), 26 – 35 years (23%), 36 - 45 years (27.6%), 46 - 55 years (36.7%) and > 55 years (10.7%). Moreover, 71 percent of the respondents are male, 66.8 percent works longer than 10 years in the organization, and 24.9 percent holds a management position.

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<sup>6</sup> Testing our hypotheses on empirical data from three organizations undergoing similar, but different changes will increase the generalizability of our results.

### 4.5.2 Measures

All measures were translated into Dutch following Brislin's (1980) translation-back-translation procedure. Before data collection, we checked the clarity of all items using a semi-structured interview with a member of one of the target organizations. All items regarding individual-level variables are rated on a seven-point scale, varying from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Table 4.1 shows that all scales have alphas above .80, hence they are considered reliable (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 4.1: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlation

	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Change consequence	4.53	1.57	(.85)		
2. Affective commitment to change	3.31	1.67	-.63**	(.93)	
3. Affective organizational commitment	4.30	1.28	-.36**	.36**	(.86)

Note. Alpha coefficients are presented on the diagonal in parentheses.

\*  $p < .05$  and \*\*  $p < .01$ .

***Perceived change consequences for the work unit.*** Each respondent was asked to provide an assessment of the effect of the specific organizational change on her or his work unit's performance. The scale focuses on the degree to which the respondents believe that the change was problematic or detrimental for the success of their work unit<sup>7</sup>. Examples of the four-item ( $\alpha = .85$ ) scale of Caldwell et al. (2004) include 'This change created problems for my work unit' and 'This change has made my unit less effective'.

***Affective organizational commitment.*** Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) six-item affective organizational commitment scale ( $\alpha = .86$ ) was used to measure workers' current affective commitment to the organization. Sample items are 'I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (reversed)' and 'I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own'.

***Affective commitment to change.*** Affective commitment to change was measured using the six-item ( $\alpha = .93$ ) affective commitment to change scale of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Workers are surveyed on their current attitude with regards to the past organizational

<sup>7</sup> As individuals have a tendency to view change as a threat rather than as an opportunity (Godin, 2002), we expect that measuring to what degree employees perceive the consequences to be negative for the work unit will allow for more variation in the responses than when measuring to what degree they view the change as beneficial.

change. Example items are ‘I believe in the value of this change’ and ‘This change serves an important purpose’.

**Employee age.** We measured employee age in five categories, but categorized employees in two groups for the analyses, as we study older workers (> 55 year). This split adheres to groupings in prior research where ‘older workers’ have been typically operationalized as above 55 (Finkelstein et al., 1995) and is in line with the operationalization used in policy-related reporting (European Commission, 2005).

**Control variables.** As management position and tenure correlate positively with organizational commitment in previous studies (Meyer et al., 2002), we included these control variables in our analyses.

### 4.5.3 Analyses

We tested for common-method variance using the Harman’s one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), not detecting any evidence of common-method variance. The factor analysis of the eighteen items of perceived change consequences, affective commitment to change and affective organizational commitment scales resulted in three factors, accounting for 40.55 percent, 16.40 percent and 8.19 percent of the variance. All items loaded primarily on their own scales. We apply hierarchical regression to test our hypotheses. To ensure appropriateness of ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation, we tested for linearity of the relationships, independence of the explanatory variables, normality of the distributions, and constant variation of the errors. We found no significant departures from these assumptions, nor did we have any influential outliers. Table 4.1 presents the descriptive statistics of the variables as well as their zero-order correlations. Change consequence correlates negatively with both affective organizational commitment ( $r = -.36$ ;  $p < .01$ ) and affective commitment to change ( $r = -.63$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Next, affective commitment to change positively correlates with affective organizational commitment ( $r = .36$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

## 4.6 RESULTS

For more parsimonious tests of the hypotheses, we estimated four linear regression models, as reported in Table 4.2. Model 1 provides support for Hypothesis 1, predicting that perceived change consequences for the work unit does relate negatively to affective commitment to change ( $\beta = -.58$ ;  $p < .01$ ). Model 2 reveals that Hypothesis 2, proposing a



negative relationship of change consequence and affective organizational commitment, is confirmed ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $p < .01$ ). To test the mediation hypothesis we combine the results of Models 1, 2 and 3 (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Model 1 shows that the regression of perceived change consequences on the mediator, affective commitment to change, is significant ( $\beta = -.58$ ;  $p < .01$ ). In Model 2, the regression of perceived change consequences on affective organizational commitment is significant as well ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $p < .01$ ), explaining 22 percent of the variance (adjusted  $R^2$ ). The mediation Model 3 reveals that, when controlling for the mediator affective commitment to change, perceived change consequences for the work unit is not a significant predictor of affective organizational commitment anymore, but that affective commitment to change does fully mediate the relation ( $\beta = .35$ ;  $p < .01$ ), accounting for 27 percent of the variance (adjusted  $R^2$ ). Hence, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Table 4.2: Linear regression analysis (standardized regression coefficients)

Variable	Model 1 AC2C	Model 2 AOC <sup>1</sup>	Model 3 AOC <sup>1</sup>	Model 4 CHCO
Organization 2	.15**	-.20**	-.26**	-.17*
Organization 3	-.13*	.11	.16*	-.26**
Gender	-.1	.04	.09	-.17*
Tenure	-.21**	.00	.07	.08
Management position	.28**	.19**	.09	-.16*
Employee age > 55 y	-.06	.02	.04	-.18*
Change consequence (CHCO)	-.58**	-.34**	-.13	
Commitment to change (AC2C)			.35**	
F-statistic	28.26**	7.95**	9.22**	6.46**
R <sup>2</sup>	.54	.25	.31	.19
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.52	.22	.27	.16

<sup>1</sup> Affective Organizational Commitment

To check whether the indirect mediation effect is significant, we tested the significance of the overall model using the ‘INDIRECT’ SPSS macro of Preacher and Hayes (2008). We constructed the bias-corrected confidence intervals around the product coefficient of the indirect (mediated) effect using bootstrapping, as suggested by Fritz and MacKinnon (2007). The indirect effect of perceived change consequences through affective commitment to change ( $\beta = -.17$ ;  $p < .05$ ) is significant, with the 95 percent confidence interval ranging from  $-.27$  to  $-.08$ . Additionally, as both commitment variables interact, we regressed affective organizational commitment on affective commitment to change, and found that this

relationship is weaker ( $\beta = .21$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) than the impact of affective commitment to change on affective organizational commitment ( $\beta = .35$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

Contrary to our expectations, Hypotheses 3a, 3b and 3c are not confirmed. Models 1, and 2 demonstrate that there is no significant impact of employee age on affective commitment to change or affective organizational commitment. Moreover, our results indicate that older workers view change consequences less negatively (Model 4), which is the reverse of Hypothesis 3b.

## 4.7 DISCUSSION

In the wake of organizational change, leaders are not only interested in the effect of the perceived change consequences on employee affective commitment to change, but also in the impact on their commitment to the organization as a whole. The latter is especially valuable as supportive behavior towards the organization or towards the change, which is associated with commitment, is largest when the foci of commitment and behavior are the same. Additionally, as the working population is getting older, the question arises whether the impact of organizational change is different for older employees. Our results, based on responses of 211 police officers in three different organizations that recently underwent an important organizational change, underscore the importance of employee's evaluation of and commitment to an organizational change for their broader commitment to the organization. Our findings, however, do not confirm the stereotype that older workers are more negative towards change but rather the opposite. Older workers view the impact of the change for their work unit more positively, and do not report differences in affective organizational commitment or affective commitment to change. Below, we discuss our findings in more detail.

First, workers' perception of the change consequences for the work unit significantly predicts affective organizational commitment, an effect that is fully explained by affective commitment to change. As such, we advise leaders to emphasize the positive outcomes of organizational change, during and after the change, as this will increase workers' affective organizational commitment. Additionally, this will raise employee affective commitment to change. Hence, when workers perceive organizational change as beneficial for the organization, they will engage in supportive behavior towards the change and the organization at large. The introduction of new structures, responsibilities or coworkers requires employees to change their way of working. They need to shift cognitive gears from automated mode to

conscious cognitive mode, which entails productivity losses (Kim, Hornung, & Rousseau, 2011). However, in our sample, we expect that the organizations already surmounted these performance dips, typically associated with organizational change (Kim et al., 2011), as we measured perceived change consequence and affective commitment to change seven to eighteen months after the change was implemented. A promising road for future research would be to study the relationship between performance and employee commitment over time - for example, using the change phases proposed by Armenakis et al. (1999): readiness (e.g., during the change), adoption (e.g., six to twelve months after the change) and institutionalization (e.g., two to three years after the change).

Second, contrary to our expectations and traditional ageing stereotypes, our results show that older workers perceive change consequences more positively than younger workers, although we do not find differences in commitment to change or to the organization between both groups of employees. An explanation for these counterintuitive findings might be that older employees are better equipped to handle changes emotionally, as indicated by psychological research. Older individuals tend to become more emotionally stable (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006; Williams et al., 2006), process positive emotional information more deeply (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999) and have increased emotional regulation capacities (Gross et al., 1997). Additionally, older workers may evaluate change differently based on previous experiences. Successful encounters with organizational change in the past will increase, for example, change-related self-efficacy (Armenakis et al., 1993). Hence, these factors may lead older individuals to view the change consequences for their work unit as more positive. Our findings are in line with the study of Kunze et al. (2013), who reported slightly higher openness to change for older employees. Further research could include these variables to provide a deeper insight into the underlying dynamics. An additional perspective to further study these findings, is to look into additional individual characteristics such as psychological capital (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008) or the Big Five personality characteristics (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011). Individuals' level of hope or openness, for example, may counteract the effect of age.

Our findings contribute to the empirical research questioning common ageing stereotypes (Posthuma & Campion, 2009) and these results should be included in age awareness seminars, to prevent negative age stereotypes to become self-fulfilling prophecies (Nelson, 2005). Moreover, organizations could train older employees to be change champions (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). They can promote the change and support younger workers who might be more anxious and uncertain about the change.

Alternatively, it could be that organizational tenure, instead of chronological age, is more important in predicting affective commitment to change, as suggested by our results. Our analyses demonstrate that employees with more than 10 years of tenure in the police force are less committed to the change ( $\beta = -.21$ ;  $p < .01$ ). This is in line with Broadwell (1985), who posits that the longer workers have spent with the organization, the less favorable they are towards changes as they have established routines and ‘preconceived’ notions about how things happen in the organization. However, tenure does not impact affective organizational commitment nor perceived change consequences. Hence, although tenure does seem to provide a better insight into individual characteristics impacting affective commitment to change, it does not prove a useful indicator of both other dependent variables. It should also be considered that the specific context, policing organizations, may create a strong professional commitment and that this could interact with the studied relations. When analyzing the effect of age on commitment, including professional commitment as moderator could provide a deeper understanding of this topic.

#### **4.8 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Our study is conducted in a very specific context, policing organizations, and focuses on important structural changes. So, first, further research could study the effect of employee age in varying contexts and over different types of changes to further unravel the underlying mechanisms. Additionally, we study the impact of commitment to a past change on current affective organizational commitment. As organizations are constantly changing, the impact on commitment to future changes could be included in a longitudinal design. Second, we contrasted employees older than 55 years with younger employees and studying age as a continuous variable might provide more insight. Next, we operationalized employee age as chronological age, while other conceptualizations such as subjective age or functional age (Kooij, de Lange, Jansen, & Dijkers, 2008) might have yielded different results. A promising future research avenue is to study the interaction between subjective age and chronological age, as previous research indicated a significant effect on work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job involvement (Cleveland & Shore, 1992). Fourth, although *ex-ante* measures were taken to limit the risk of common-method variance, our variables were measured using a single source, implying that common-method variance cannot be completely ruled out, which would inflate our results. Future research would benefit from using information from additional sources such as absenteeism of employees or performance

indicators. Fifth, as our design is cross-sectional, causality cannot be tested, implying that any causality claim is based on theoretical reasoning. Longitudinal analysis would increase the robustness of our findings. Finally, much remains to be uncovered concerning the impact of employee age during organizational change. Further studies could analyze other underlying mechanisms, such as differences in emotional regulation, which could impact older workers' attitudes towards the organization and towards change.

## 5 CONCLUSION

### 5.1 OVERALL RESULTS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Initiating and managing change seems to be one of the key competences sought for in today's managers (By, 2005). As the majority of change initiatives, however, are failing (Burnes, 2004), this thesis aims to provide insight into the factors that could enhance the success of organizational change. Three studies empirically test the impact of change context, process and individual characteristics on change outcomes. In line with recent scholarship on organizational change (Oreg et al., 2013), we believe that employee commitment and motivation is essential to achieve successful organizational change. We selected affective commitment to change as the dependent variable in Chapters 2 and 3, and affective organizational commitment in Chapter 4 (see Figure 5.1).

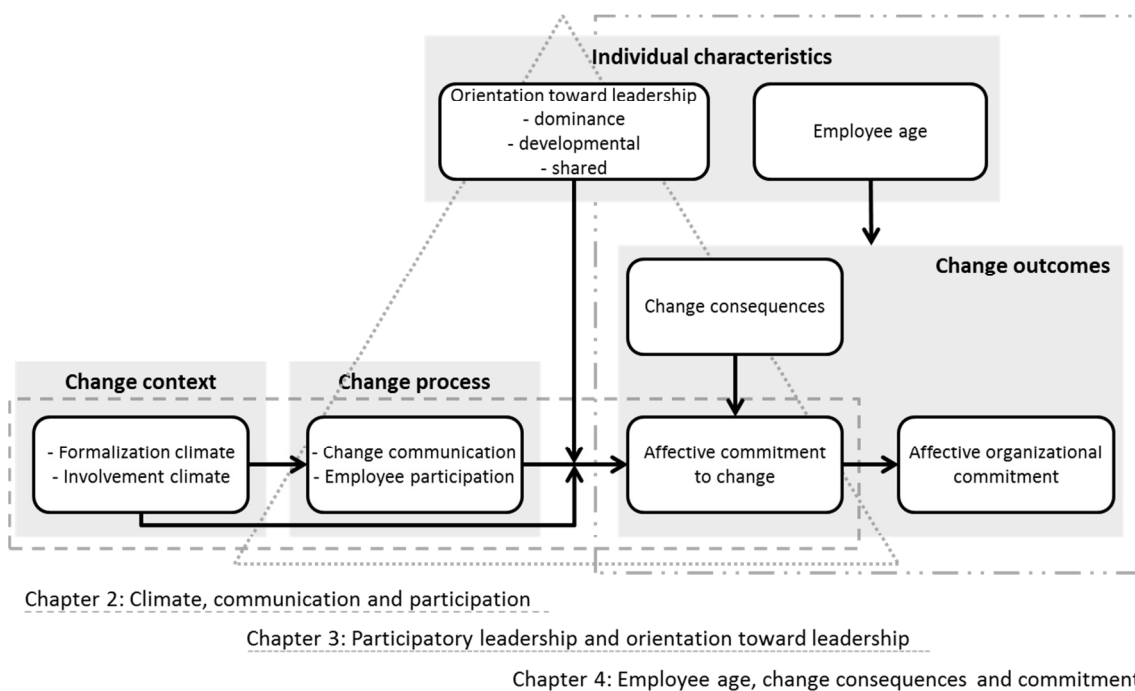


Figure 5.1: Overall structure of the current thesis

Overall, our results underline the importance of the effect of change context, process and individual characteristics on change outcomes, although the impact differs between the studied variables. Below, we summarize the main results (see Table 5.1 for an overview) and connect the chapters to the overarching model.

Table 5.1: Overview of hypotheses

Chapter	Hypotheses	Result
2	H1a: quality change comm. and affective commitment to change (+).	Yes
	H1a: employee participation and affective commitment to change (+).	No
	H2a: formalization climate and affective commitment to change (-).	No
	H2b: involvement climate and affective commitment to change (+).	Yes
	H3a: employee participation mediates between formalization climate and affective commitment to change (-).	No
	H3b: quality change comm. and employee participation mediate between involvement climate and affective commitment to change (+).	Yes
	H4a: formalization climate moderates between quality change comm. and affective commitment to change (+).	No
	H4b: involvement climate moderates between quality change comm. and affective commitment to change (+).	No
	H5a: formalization climate moderates between employee participation and affective commitment to change (-).	Marginal support
	H5b: involvement climate moderates between employee participation and affective commitment to change (+).	No
3	H1: participative leadership and affective commitment to change (+).	No
	H2: dominance orientation towards leadership moderates between participative leadership and affective commitment to change (-).	Yes
	H3: development orientation towards leadership moderates between participative leadership and affective commitment to change (+).	Yes
	H4: shared orientation towards leadership moderates between participative leadership and affective commitment to change (+).	No
4	H1: negative change consequences, affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to change (-).	Yes
	H2: Affective commitment to change mediates between negative change consequences and affective organizational commitment (-).	Yes
	H3a: Employee age and affective organizational commitment (+).	No
	H3b: Employee age and negative change consequences (+).	No
	H3c: Employee age and affective commitment to change (-).	No

First, the impact of change context is investigated in Chapter 2. Next, the influence of change process is analyzed in Chapters 2 and 3. Third, the relation between the change outcomes is studied in Chapter 4. Last, the effect of individual characteristics is discussed in Chapters 3 and 4.

### **5.1.1 Change context**

In Chapter 2, we propose that the way employees perceive their work environment will influence attitudes towards change. A psychological climate supports employees in interpreting events, predicting possible outcomes and evaluating the appropriateness of their actions (Parker et al., 2003). Hence, we argue that in a highly formalized climate, oriented towards continuity and consolidation, organizational change will be viewed as a threat and affective commitment to change will be lower. In contrast, affective commitment to change is expected to be higher in a high involvement-oriented climate, respectful of employee input. Our results confirm the positive relation between a high involvement-oriented climate and affective commitment to change, but do not support the hypothesized effect of a high formalization climate. A possible explanation for this non-expected finding is that certain aspects of a formalization climate are actually beneficial during organizational change, such as a clear purpose and explicit work procedures (Ettlie et al., 1984). We suggest that future research includes both undermining and supportive mechanisms inherent to a high formalization climate, such as orientation towards continuity and need for consolation versus clarity of purpose and explicit procedures.

Additionally, we hypothesize that the effect of climate will be fully mediated by quality change communication and employee participation. A high formalization climate is characterized by formal information management and fact-based decision-making (Jones et al., 2005). Since the psychological climate will direct and motivate employee efforts (Schneider et al., 1996), we reason that this will reduce the opportunities for employee participation, as well as the interest of employees to actively contribute. In contrast, in a high involvement-oriented climate, information is broadly shared and employees frequently have opportunities to participate (Miller et al., 1994). We suggest that both quality change communication and employee participation are embedded practices in a similar organization. Our findings show that the relationship between an involvement-oriented climate and affective commitment to change is indeed explained by quality change communication. Similar to the direct effect, no significant relation was found for highly formalized climates.



### 5.1.2 Change process

In Chapters 2 and 3, we put forward that high-quality change communication and employee participation will enhance perceptions of procedural justice (Caldwell et al., 2004) and that this will increase affective commitment to change in two ways. First, quality change communication will reduce uncertainty and allow workers to prepare for the change (Bordia et al., 2004). Second, employee participation will offer opportunities for voice, self-discovery and increased control over the change (Korsgaard et al., 1995). Our findings demonstrate a positive impact of quality change communication on affective commitment to change. However, we find no effect for employee participation. In the current thesis, we analyze two possible interaction effects that might clarify this counter-intuitive finding, and offer two possible directions for additional research. First, we investigate the importance of a match between climate and change process (Chapter 2). Second, we look into the impact of orientation towards leadership on the relation between participative leadership<sup>8</sup> and affective commitment to change (see 5.1.4 Individual characteristics).

In Chapter 2, we posit that the impact of quality change communication and employee participation will depend on the climate. We argue that actions taken during change processes will be most effective in organizational climates that are supportive of these practices. We hypothesize that both a high formalization and a high involvement-oriented climate enhance the positive effect of quality change communication on affective commitment to change. In contrast, employee participation will be less effective in a high formalization climate and more effective in a high involvement-oriented climate. Our results offer partial support for the importance of a match between climate and change process. We only find that employee participation is less effective in a high formalization climate. A possible reason for this unexpected finding is that the variation in climate in our sample is too limited, we gathered data in police organizations which typically have a strong focus on hierarchy and formalization (Ford et al., 2003; Greene, 2000). Hence, we suggest that in future research a variety of professions and organizations are considered when studying the impact of climate during organizational change to test the proposed relations.

Alternatively, one could suggest that employees primarily value the improved information available when actively participating in decision-making. *Ex-post* analysis

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<sup>8</sup> For reasons of consistency, in this thesis, we should replace ‘participative leadership’ by ‘employee participation’. As this would harm the theoretical reasoning throughout Chapter 3, however, this was not considered a preferable option.

indicates that the effect of employee participation is fully mediated by quality change communication, which seems to support this assumption. We recommend scholars to further analyze the underlying dynamics to offer a deeper understanding of these mechanisms. It would be interesting, for example, to analyze uncertainty and perceived control together with the two aspects of procedural justice. Finally, another explanation is that participation in decision-making only has a significant impact during earlier phases of the change processes (Johnson-Cramer et al., 2003). Hence, we suggest that scholars study the effect of employee participation during multiple implementation phases in a longitudinal design.

### **5.1.3 Change outcomes**

In Chapter 4, we study affective commitment to change and to the organization. Both constructs are associated with employee's willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the change or the organization (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2002). Behavior can be influenced by multiple foci, but the effect will be largest when the focus of commitment and behavior are the same (Meyer et al., 2007). Hence, we argue that affective commitment to change will be most beneficial for the success of the change, and affective organizational commitment will be more important when aiming to optimize supportive behavior towards the organization. This will be especially relevant when the goal of the organizational change and the broader organization are different, such as reducing costs (change goal) while maintaining a high level of service (organizational goal). Additionally, we analyze the impact of perceived change consequences on affective organizational commitment, and whether this relation is explained by affective commitment to change. In line with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), we reason that perceived negative consequences of the change will trigger negative responses against the organization, as originator of the change, and reduce affective organizational commitment. We propose that it will also reduce the expected value of the change, and as such lower affective commitment to change. Our results confirm both the direct and mediated effect of perceived change consequences on affective organizational commitment.

### **5.1.4 Individual characteristics**

In Chapter 3, we further probe into the relation between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. Leadership involves actions and processes, and individuals

are likely to differ in their views as to which ones are important and should characterize leadership (Hiller, 2005). We posit that the effect of participative leadership will depend on the leadership orientation of the follower. Individuals with high dominance orientation towards leadership consider providing direction and facing adaptive challenges the sole responsibility of the leader and will shy participation in decision-making. In contrast, employees with high development or shared orientation towards leadership value the impact on decision-making and the possibility to influence the outcome of the change. Our results provide support for the interaction effect of high dominance and high development orientation towards leadership on the relation between participative leadership and affective commitment to change. Hence, it seems there is a clear difference between workers who primarily regard leadership to be the sole responsibility of the leader, and employees who principally consider that leadership can be developed in an interactive process of negotiating influence. Contrary to our expectations, we did not find an effect of shared orientation towards leadership. We suggest that future research includes additional variables in analyses of the interaction between participative leadership and shared orientation towards leadership. Examples might include organizational climate at the organizational-level, or self-efficacy at the individual-level.

In Chapter 4, we study if employee age has an impact on employee commitment in organizations confronted with change. Based on age stereotyping literature (Posthuma & Campion, 2009), we propose that older workers have stronger affective commitment to the organization, but are more negative towards change. Both career stage models (Gould, 1979) and cognition research (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004) support this view. Our results do not support the existing stereotypes as we find no direct effect of age on both forms of commitment, and a negative effect on perceived change consequences. A possible explanation for these unexpected findings could be that specific characteristics, useful when confronted with organizational change, increase with age, such as higher emotional stability (Roberts et al., 2006), more emotional regulation capabilities (Gross et al., 1997) and better processing of positive emotional information (Carstensen et al., 1999). We suggest that future research studies these supporting aspects, together with undermining facets based on career stage models and cognition research to increase the understanding of the impact of age during change.

## 5.2 EMBEDDING IN COMPOSITE

### 5.2.1 Police typology - Work Package 2

Apart from looking at internal strengths and weaknesses, COMPOSITE's Work Package 2 studied if there were differences in police typology between countries. The analyses were based on the theories of White (1972) and Mawby (2008). White (1972) describes a distinction between a command-control orientation, where authority is centralized at the top of the hierarchy, and a discretion-control orientation, where individual police officers hold the authority. Mawby (2008) distinguishes police forces based on three criteria: structure, function, and legitimacy / accountability. Cluster analysis was used to group together countries with similar police forces on each of the criteria. Results show that the Belgian federal police was characterized by a medium command-control structure, a high community-orientation function, and high accountability to public leaders. The Belgian local police was regarded as a low command-control structure, with a high community-orientation function, and high accountability to the public and local communities.

Where Work Package 2 studies the level of discretion embedded in the organizational structure of the police, one could ponder that orientation towards leadership, put forward in Chapter 4 of this thesis, will impact the level of discretion desired by the employees. On the one hand, dominance orientation towards leadership could be associated with authority centralized at the top of the organization. Development orientation and shared orientation towards leadership, on the other hand, could be connected to the delegation of authority to the officers. In our study, we find that, on average, respondents scored highest on development orientation and lowest on dominance orientation. This could indicate that Belgian police officers appreciate delegation of authority. Work Package 2's findings indicate that the Belgian local police, which comprises the largest proportion of our sample, had a low command-control structure. Hence, a certain degree of congruence between individual preferences and organizational structure with regards to the amount of decentralization of authority could exist. In future research, it would be interesting to test this proposition, and study orientation towards leadership in organizations at different ends of the command-discretion control continuum - for example, in the Belgian local police, with a low command-control structure, and the French police nationale, with a high command-control structure. Additionally, in Work Package 2, the police forces in the Netherlands, Spain and the UK were found to be similar to the Belgian local police with regards to structure. These countries might be best suited to test if the conclusions of our research hold outside Belgium.

### 5.2.2 Organizational change - Work Package 5

The theoretical framework and methods used in COMPOSITE's Work Package 5 are different from the current thesis. While Work Package 5 builds on Cognitive Organization Theory (COT), the current thesis uses multiple theories such as a contextualist view, a contingency view, and an individual differences perspective. Additionally, the methods were dissimilar. In Work Package 5, fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) were used, compared to ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions in the current thesis. In view of our limited sample, SEM was not feasible. However, QCA could have been a very interesting method as we have 211 respondents in three police forces. QCA is particularly well equipped to handle multiple-level nested cases for small and medium-sized data sets (up to 250 records). The qualitative interpretation combined with the analysis of causation would have been appropriate to answer the needs of the police forces, as they attach particular importance to the richness of the studies.

Nonetheless, we found several parallels in both studies. First, both Work Package 5 and the current thesis propose an integrated model of change, studying the impact of organizational characteristics and (actions of leaders during the) change process on individual commitment to change. Second, Work Package 5's findings indicate that high organizational opacity, asperity, intricacy and viscosity reduce intrinsic and actual appeal. These organizations are low in transparency, low in restrictiveness of organizational culture, have a high complexity and are sluggish in their response to change. This could very well align with our finding that affective commitment to change (actual appeal) is higher in involvement-oriented climates, which are characterized by open communication and participation. Future research could investigate if involvement-oriented organizations are more transparent, have an open culture, have a lower complexity and are quicker in their response to change. Third, Work Package 5's findings indicate that actions of leaders during the change increase actual appeal. Three out of the five items of the leadership engagement scale relate to information sharing during the change; hence, we can advance that these findings are very similar to our finding that quality change communication is an important variable increasing commitment to change. Fourth, both studies indicate that older individuals can be valuable during change initiatives as they view the consequences more positively or are viewing change more as a constant process. Hence, Work Package 5 and the studies in the current thesis seem to support the robustness of each other's findings.

### 5.2.3 Leadership - Work Package 7

Comparing the results of the current thesis with the outcomes in COMPOSITE's Work Package 7 is not so obvious. First, in contrast to our regression approach, Work Package 7 analyses are based on bilateral correlations only. Additionally, Work Package 7's study is spread over ten countries, and inter-country differences may impact the findings. Finally, although the constructs are similar, both studies used different measures, which may influence the results. Nonetheless, it is interesting to look for parallels between the results of staff involvement and informational justice in Work Package 7, and quality change communication and employee participation in the current thesis. First, we can compare results on informational justice and quality change communication. Informational justice was measured with items such as "the reasons for the change were clearly explained", while quality change communication was measured with, for example, "the information provided to me about the changes has been useful". Work Package 7 measures the impact on the dependent variables change readiness and evaluation of past changes, while this thesis looks at the effect on affective commitment to change. The results, however, are similar: both informational justice and quality change communication have a positive impact on the dependent variables.

Second, staff involvement and employee participation measure similar constructs. In Work Package 7, employees evaluated staff involvement with items like "our leader involved employees in the change process", while in this thesis they scored items such as "I have given input for the decisions being made about the future of the organization". The findings of Work Package 7 are different from our results, however. Work Package 7 bivariate correlations indicate that staff involvement increases positive evaluations of the past change, which is not supported by our multivariate regression results. Admittedly, our analyses would have shown the same relation if we would have limited our study to bilateral correlations as well, as in Work Package 7. Hence, more advanced analysis of the data of Work Package 7 would be required to find if the relationship between staff involvement and change evaluation remains positive when controlling for informational justice. Third, Work Package 7 looked at leadership from a traditional angle, using a transformational leadership scale. In this thesis, we used a novel approach, and studied the way individuals view and accept leadership. Conceptually, we could regard change leaders high in decisiveness (e.g., "our leader took a clear leading role in the change process") as more dominant leaders. Integrating both results, however, is hazardous, as Work Package 7 only studies bivariate relations, whilst our thesis estimates multivariate models including moderation effects. Future police research could use

a multi-level approach and include both constructs - leadership and orientation towards leadership – to study the interaction between leaders and their teams.

### 5.3 METHODOLOGICAL REFLECTION

We chose to collect data through a survey, although other options could have revealed novel insights on successful change as well. First, as we had privileged access to two police organizations that recently went through a merger, this could have provided us with two interesting case studies: one in a larger local police force and one in a smaller federal police unit. Both chief commissioners documented the change process very well, and both were eager to learn more about organizational change and their organization. Hence, this would have been an opportunity to study how they handled the change. We did not pursue this option, however, as the organizational change took place in the past, and was not underway. This would have given us insufficiently rich information, which is typically needed for a good case study. During the change process, evidence could have been gathered through interviews with employees in all ranks, and by attending information sessions, which was not possible anymore at the time we conducted our study. Second, as we were searching for causal relations, a causal design would have been more appropriate. Collecting data at two different points in time, however, was difficult to organize in our police forces. We also considered a longitudinal design, but this encountered the same challenge. Finally, we initially aimed to include more than thirty police forces to study change in a multi-level design. This was, however, revised along the way because of the required time investment to gain cooperation of each and every police force.

Data was analyzed using ordinary least square hierarchical linear regressions, although other methods would have been appropriate as well. First, structural equation modeling (SEM) would certainly have been appropriate to analyze our data as this method allows constructs to co-vary. However, we could not use this method as our dataset was too limited. A second valuable methodology to analyze our data would be fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (QCA), as this allows a quantitatively oriented analysis with a limited number of respondents. Additionally, our in-depth knowledge of the police forces would have been useful to define set membership. As we were unfamiliar with this method at the time of the analyses, however, we did not use this technique.

## 5.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND POLICY

Apart from its contribution to academia, this thesis seeks to be of value for practitioners. By presenting the implications for practice and policy, we aim to support practitioners in the optimization of their organizational change efforts. First, the results of this thesis underscore the importance of considering an overall view of organizational change. This implies that leaders will need to envision that change outcomes are influenced by change content, context, process and individual characteristics. Our model can support change leaders in carefully mapping out the four aspects in their organization to realistically estimate the effort required to transform the organization. Certain aspects can be managed throughout the change, such as quality change communication and employee participation. Other elements, however, will take a longer time to evolve or will have to be considered as constraints, such as climate and individual characteristics. Based on the overall model, presented in this thesis, practitioners can clarify responsibilities for the optimization of different components. Second, this thesis highlights the significance of an involvement-oriented climate when changing an organization. A similar climate is characterized by participative decision-making and empowerment. Our results show that this increases quality change communication as well as employees' positive view on change.

Third, our analyses of change processes confirm the benefits of timely, high-quality communication during change initiatives. Employees are confronted with high uncertainty, and clear communication supports processes of sense-making and helps them to prepare for the change. Workers value quality change communication, irrespective of the organizational context. With regards to employee participation, however, the results are less ubiquitous. Overall, there is a positive effect, although our results indicate that it is fully explained by quality change communication. In practice, this means that employee participation is appreciated by employees, although it seems sufficient to focus on information sharing, as other benefits such as influence on the outcome have no significant impact. Writing off employee participation as a key variable during organizational change would be premature, however, as further analyses show that the impact of employee participation varies depending on individual characteristics or organizational context. For individuals with high development orientation towards leadership, who value the opportunity to influence the change, high employee participation during organizational change leads to a rise in affective commitment to change. In contrast, for employees with high dominance orientation, who prefer the leader to provide direction, high participation in decision-making reduces their positive attitudes



towards the change. Additionally, our findings show that employee participation has a negative effect in a high formalization climate. Hence, we recommend that when considering employee participation during organizational change, individual characteristics and organizational climate are taken into account.

Fourth, our findings do not confirm the commonly held perception that older workers are more positive towards the organization but more negative towards change than their younger colleagues. On the contrary, older employees seem to perceive change consequences more positively, although there are no differences in commitment to change or to the organization. Hence, we recommend leaders to transform older workers into change champions who spread the change and support their younger colleagues. Finally, perceived change consequences significantly impact both levels of commitment. This implies that organizational leaders should at all times aim to optimize the perceptions of the change outcomes, and stress potential benefits resulting from the change.

Our overall model was empirically tested in police organizations. Hence, our recommendations for practice and policy will first and foremost be oriented towards this profession. However, as we built our model on sound and extensive theoretical grounds, we believe that our findings can also benefit (change) leaders in other public and private organizations. Nevertheless, future research should replicate our research in different settings to explore external validity.

## **5.5 OVERALL LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

Next to the limitations and directions for further research mentioned in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, we want to highlight four limitations that apply to this thesis as a whole. First, although we presented an overall model, the three empirical studies test only parts of the model. We suggest that future researchers gather a larger dataset that enables testing all proposed relations at once. Second, the four aspects of our model can be considered at different levels of analysis: change context at organizational level, change content and change process at change level, and differences at individual level. We recommend future research to collect data on a variety of changes in multiple organizations, and to conduct an analysis of the nested data in a multi-level study. This will enable to estimate cross-level interactions as well as the separate variance between individuals, changes and organizations. Third, studying the four elements of our model in a longitudinal design would increase the validity of the results. We advise future research to collect data on change context and individual characteristics

before the change, on change content and process during the change, and on change outcomes after the change. Finally, this thesis tests a limited number of variables for each of the four elements of the model. One could consider a multitude of alternative variables relevant in the study of organizational change. We suggest that scholars consider additional constructs when studying an overall view of change, such as external context variables or change phases.

## **5.6 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE**

With this thesis, we contribute to the body of knowledge in at least five ways. First, using the building blocks suggested by Pettigrew (1985) and Armenakis and Bedeian (1999), we build a framework including causal relations between change context, process, individual characteristics and change outcomes, within the constraints of a specific change content. This thesis proposes an overall model to study organizational change, and provides empirical support for its relevance. Second, in our study, we aim to provide answers to three of the six challenges identified by Pettigrew, Woodman, and Cameron (2001). We consider multiple context variables, study the impact of change process on affective organizational commitment as an organizational-level outcome, and develop the model based on business experience combined with academic knowledge. Third, in our empirical studies, we unveil two counter-intuitive findings and introduce a novel construct. Our results demonstrate that (change) leaders should critically consider if employee participation is the best strategy during the implementation of change, acknowledging that the choice will depend on organizational climate and characteristics of individual employees. Next, our findings confirm the inaccuracy of ageing stereotypes proposing that older employees are more negative towards change. Last, our analyses establish the relevance of orientation towards leadership when studying the impact of leadership practices during organizational change.

## 5.7 SAMENVATTING (DUTCH)

Deze thesis is geschreven in een academische context, maar wil ook een meerwaarde betekenen voor de praktijk. We willen leidinggevend en medewerkers ondersteuning bieden in hun zoektocht naar de optimalisatie van organisatieveranderingen. Onze belangrijkste bevinding is dat veranderingen niet los van de context mogen gezien worden. Dit betekent dat het succes van de verandering afhankelijk zal zijn van de inhoud, maar ook van de organisatie waarin de verandering plaatsvindt, van de manier waarop ze uitgevoerd wordt en van de eigenschappen van de medewerkers. Ons model kan leiders ondersteunen bij het maken van een realistische inschatting van de vereiste inspanning om hun organisatie te veranderen. Voor elk van de elementen: organisatieklimaat, communicatie en participatie tijdens de verandering, en aandacht voor individuele eigenschappen, kunnen verantwoordelijkheden vastgelegd worden. Niet alle aspecten kunnen echter tijdens de verandering aangepakt worden. Het klimaat van de organisatie zal vaak een beperking zijn, want het kan meerdere jaren duren om dit te wijzigen. Het creëren van een klimaat van betrokkenheid zou een continue opdracht kunnen zijn, met als doel veranderingen in de toekomst te faciliteren. Een dergelijk klimaat wordt gekenmerkt door medewerkersparticipatie in beslissingen en empowerment. Onze resultaten tonen aan dat dit de kwaliteit van de communicatie en participatie in de besluitvorming tijdens veranderingen zal verhogen, alsook de betrokkenheid van medewerkers bij de verandering. De eigenschappen van medewerkers zullen ook veelal een beperkende factor zijn. In onze analyses onderzochten we of oudere medewerkers negatiever stonden ten opzichte van veranderingen en positiever ten opzichte van de organisatie. Dit werd niet bevestigd en onze resultaten wezen eerder in de tegengestelde richting. Medewerkers ouder dan 55 jaar bleken de gevolgen van de verandering voor hun team positiever in te schatten dan jongere medewerkers. Het zou dan ook interessant kunnen zijn om deze personen in te schakelen als supporters van de verandering en als ondersteuning van jongere collega's.

De manier waarop de verandering aangestuurd wordt, kan wel tijdens verandering geoptimaliseerd worden. Onze resultaten tonen aan dat correcte, tijdige en volledige communicatie een belangrijk element is voor de betrokkenheid van de medewerkers, onafhankelijk van de organisatie of van hun individuele eigenschappen. Ook de participatie van de medewerkers in de besluitvorming kan tijdens de verandering gemanaged worden. Deze interventie draagt echter niet altijd bij aan een positievere houding van de medewerkers ten opzichte van de verandering, en is afhankelijk van de voorkeur van de medewerkers of

van het klimaat. Onze bevindingen tonen aan dat participatie de betrokkenheid bij de verandering verhoogt voor medewerkers met een hoge ontwikkelingsgerichte leiderschapsorientatie. Zij waarderen de mogelijkheid om de verandering te beïnvloeden. Medewerkers met een hoge dominantie leiderschapsorientatie verwachten een duidelijke sturing vanuit de leidinggevende. Voor hen zorgt participatie in de besluitvorming dan ook voor een negatievere houding tegenover de verandering. Ook het klimaat speelt een belangrijke rol. In een sterk geformaliseerd klimaat kan participatie in de besluitvorming ervoor zorgen dat medewerkers negatiever kijken naar de verandering. Het is bijgevolg raadzaam de organisatie context en de eigenschappen van de medewerkers in kaart te brengen, alvorens men ervoor kiest hen te betrekken in de besluitvorming. Het organiseren van fora voor participatie heeft echter ook positieve effecten: de informatie die de medewerkers krijgen zorgt ervoor dat ze zich een beter beeld kunnen vormen van de verandering en dat hun onzekerheid daalt. Hieruit kunnen we besluiten dat de informatiedeling in dergelijke initiatieven wel bijdraagt tot een positieve houding ten opzichte van de verandering. Tot slot vinden we dat de inschatting van de gevolgen van de verandering door medewerkers zowel hun betrokkenheid bij de organisatie als bij de verandering beïnvloedt. Wanneer ze geloven dat de verandering weinig negatieve gevolgen heeft voor de efficiëntie van hun team, staan ze positiever tegenover de verandering én tegenover de organisatie. Tijdens het gehele veranderingstraject blijft het dus belangrijk om de positieve gevolgen te benadrukken en de verbeteringen in de verf te zetten.

We testten ons model in politie organisaties, en daarom zullen onze aanbevelingen in de eerste plaats relevant zijn voor deze groep. De theoretische onderbouwing van ons model zorgt er echter ook voor dat onze bevindingen relevant kunnen zijn voor leiders in andere publieke en private ondernemingen.



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## **APPENDIX A: CONSTRUCTS AND SURVEY ITEMS**

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Below, all constructs and survey items used in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of the current thesis are listed. Reversed items are indicated with \*.

### **CHANGE CONTEXT**

Formalization climate - Patterson et al. (2005)

1. People can ignore formal procedures and rules if it helps get the job done.\*
2. Nobody gets too upset if people break the rules around here.\*
3. Everything has to be done by the book.
4. It's not necessary to follow procedures to the letter around here.\*
5. It is considered extremely important here to follow the rules.

Involvement-oriented climate – Patterson et al. (2005)

1. Management involve people when decisions are made that affect them.
2. Information is widely shared.
3. Changes are made without talking to the people involved in them.\*
4. People don't have any say in decisions which affect their work.\*
5. There are often breakdowns in communication here.\*
6. People feel decisions are frequently made over their heads.\*

### **CHANGE PROCESS**

Quality change communication - Wanberg and Banas (2000)

1. The information provided to me about the changes has been timely.
2. The information provided to me has adequately answered my questions about the changes.
3. The information provided to me about the changes has been useful.
4. I have received adequate information about the forthcoming changes.



Employee participation - Wanberg and Banas (2000)

1. I participated in the implementation of the changes that have been proposed and that are occurring.
2. I have given input for the decisions being made about the future of the organization.
3. I have exerted control over the changes that have been proposed and that are occurring.

**INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES**

Dominance leadership orientation – Hiller (2005)

1. If you supervise others, you are a leader.
2. One's formal position determines whether they are a leader.
3. Leadership and power are pretty much the same thing.
4. Leaders order other people around.

Developmental leadership orientation – Hiller (2005)

1. You can't teach leadership.\*
2. Skills and abilities for leadership can be developed.
3. Leaders can acquire skills to make them more effective.
4. People can be taught to be more effective leaders.

Shared leadership orientation – Hiller (2005)

1. Leadership is the property of the group, not the individual.
2. Individual people do not possess leadership—it is a property of the group.
3. Leadership is the responsibility of everybody in a group.
4. Together, group members create leadership.
5. Leadership happens when people collaborate.
6. Leadership is not possessed by any one individual.
7. Leadership is about the group, rather than a single leader.
8. Leadership involves a group collectively making decisions.

## **CHANGE OUTCOMES**

Change consequence – Caldwell et al. (2004)

1. This change created problems for my work unit.
2. This change has harmed my work unit.
3. This change has disrupted the way my unit normally functions.
4. This change has made my unit less effective.

Affective commitment to change – Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)

1. I believe in the value of this change.
2. This change is a good strategy for this organization.
3. This change is not necessary.\*
4. This change serves an important purpose.
5. Things would be better without this change.\*
6. I think that management is making a mistake by introducing this change.\*

Affective organizational commitment - Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.\*
3. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.\*
5. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
6. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.\*



**APPENDIX B: ITEMS COMPRISING VARIABLES AND RESULTS OF PRINCIPAL  
COMPONENT ANALYSIS (VARIMAX ROTATION)**

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	I	II
I. Quality change comm. (adapted from Wanberg & Banas, 2000)		
1. The information provided to me about the changes has been timely	<b>.79</b>	.07
2. The information provided to me about the changes has been useful	<b>.87</b>	.22
3. The information provided to me has adequately answered my questions about the changes	<b>.88</b>	.20
4. I have received adequate information about the forthcoming changes	<b>.87</b>	.25
II. Employee participation (adapted from Wanberg & Banas, 2000)		
1. I participated in the implementation of the changes that have been proposed and that are occurring	.17	<b>.83</b>
2. I have exerted control over the changes that have been proposed and that are occurring	.14	<b>.88</b>
3. I have given input for the decisions being made about the future of the organization	.20	<b>.82</b>



## APPENDIX C: SURVEY (NL) - DATA COLLECTION CHAPTERS 2, 3 AND 4

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Universiteit Antwerpen – Faculteit Economie  
Prinsstraat 13  
2000 ANTWERPEN



**Onderwerp:** Wetenschappelijk onderzoek naar succesfactoren van organisatie veranderingen

Beste,

In vele organisaties zien we dat de enige constante “verandering” is, en dit geldt ook binnen de politie. Nieuwe processen, andere collega’s, nieuwe regelgeving of een andere werkplek, zijn maar enkele voorbeelden. Al deze veranderingen hebben een grote impact op de motivatie van politie mensen en CAllog. Daarom onderzoeken we, vanuit het Europese project COMPOSITE (<http://www.composite-project.eu/>), welke factoren de betrokkenheid op het werk beïnvloeden in een veranderende omgeving.

Om deze aspecten te bepalen, hebben we echter uw hulp nodig. Met deze brief willen we u graag uitnodigen om deel te nemen aan de bijgevoegde enquête. De vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over het korps en de verandering. Er zijn geen correcte of foute antwoorden. We zijn zeer geïnteresseerd in uw standpunt en willen u dan ook vriendelijk verzoeken de enquête nauwkeurig in te vullen.

Het invullen van de enquête zal een 15-tal minuten van uw tijd in beslag nemen. Uiteraard garanderen we u anonimiteit en confidentialiteit m.b.t. de verstrekte gegevens. De antwoorden op de enquête komen uitsluitend ter beschikking van de betrokken onderzoekers van de Universiteit Antwerpen. De resultaten voor het gehele korps, en verschillen met andere korpsen, zullen bovendien samengevat worden zodat er in de toekomst (nog) beter met verandering kan worden omgegaan.

We hopen dat u gebruik maakt van deze kans om anoniem uw mening te geven over verschillende aspecten van de organisatie van het korps.

Wij willen u vriendelijk verzoeken bijgevoegde enquête in te vullen en vóór 13 juli te bezorgen aan het secretariaat van de afdeling. Mocht u vragen hebben, kan u ons steeds contacteren via email op [sofie.rogiest@ua.ac.be](mailto:sofie.rogiest@ua.ac.be).

Alvast hartelijk bedankt voor uw tijd en uw medewerking,

Drs. S. Rogiest  
Prof. dr. J. Segers  
Prof. dr. van Witteloostuijn

# 1. Vragen over de organisatie: de afdeling

Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw betrokkenheid bij het korps en uw persoonlijke mening over de manier van werken binnen uw afdeling.

- 1.1. In welke mate wordt de manier van werken in uw afdeling correct beschreven in onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal fout), 2 (meestal fout), 3 (meestal juist) tot 4 (helemaal juist); kruis op elke regel één van de antwoordmogelijkheden aan:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
(1) De officieren controleren heel strikt het werk van de mensen onder hen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) We kunnen interne regels en formele procedures negeren als dat helpt om het werk gedaan te krijgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(3) In mijn afdeling geraakt niemand echt overstuur als mensen de interne regels breken.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(4) Het officierenkader betreft de mensen wanneer beslissingen worden genomen die hen aangaan.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(5) De officieren voeren een te strikt bewind over de manier waarop dingen hier geregeld worden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(6) Informatie wordt breed verspreid.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(7) Alles moet gedaan worden volgens het boekje.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(8) Veranderingen worden doorgevoerd zonder te spreken met de betrokkenen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(9) We hebben geen enkele inbreng in beslissingen die ons werk beïnvloeden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(10) Het is belangrijk om dingen eerst bij de baas te checken vóór een beslissing te nemen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(11) Er zijn vaak communicatiestoringen in mijn afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(12) Het is in mijn afdeling niet nodig om de interne procedures letterlijk te volgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(13) Het officierenkader vertrouwt erop dat mensen werk-gerelateerde beslissingen nemen zonder eerst goedkeuring te verkrijgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(14) De officieren laten de mensen meestal hun eigen beslissingen nemen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(15) Mensen hebben vaak het gevoel dat beslissingen over hun hoofd heen genomen worden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(16) In mijn afdeling vindt men het extreem belangrijk dat de interne regels gevolgd worden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(17) Sinds de verandering is de manier van werken in mijn afdeling helemaal anders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 1.2. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot 7 (helemaal mee eens):

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik zou met plezier de rest van mijn loopbaan bij dit politiekorps werken.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) Ik heb niet het gevoel dat ik echt “deel uitmaak” van dit korps.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(3) Ik denk dat ik gemakkelijk even gehecht kan geraken aan een ander politiekorps dan aan dit korps.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(4) Dit korps heeft veel persoonlijke waarde voor me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(5) Ik voel me niet emotioneel gehecht aan dit politiekorps.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(6) Ik heb echt het gevoel dat de problemen van dit korps mij persoonlijk aangaan.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(7) In mijn politiekorps voel ik me geen “deel van de familie”.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(8) Ik voel niet echt dat ik “erbij hoor” in mijn politiekorps.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## 2. Vragen over de verandering

Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over de **verandering**. Er zijn geen correcte of foute antwoorden.

2.1. Kunt u kort de impact van de verandering op uw huidige werkomgeving beschrijven?

2.2. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op onderstaande stellingen op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (licht mee eens), 5 (mee eens) tot 6 (helemaal mee eens).

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
De verandering veroorzaakte ...						
(0) ... wijzigingen in de beschikbare werkruimte en lokalen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(1) ... wijzigingen in de interactie tussen mijn afdeling en andere cellen en diensten.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) ... wijzigingen in de manier waarop prestaties worden bijgehouden en gemeten.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) ... wijzigingen in de manier waarop men in mijn afdeling werkt.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) ... wijzigingen in de dagelijkse routine van de mensen in mijn afdeling.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) ... wijzigingen in de processen en procedures van mijn afdeling.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.3. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (neutraal), 4 (mee eens) tot 5 (helemaal mee eens):

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(0) Door de verandering zijn de werkomstandigheden (lokalen, PC's, ...) verbeterd.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(1) Door de verandering zijn mijn job verantwoordelijkheden gewijzigd.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) We waren nog eerdere veranderingen aan het verwerken toen we aan de verandering begonnen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik vind dat er op het werk hogere eisen aan mij worden gesteld door de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Als gevolg van de verandering is de aard van mijn werk veranderd.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Als gevolg van de verandering word ik verondersteld meer te werken dan voordien.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) De verandering heeft geleden onder te veel andere bezigheden in mijn afdeling.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) Ik ondervind meer werkdruk door de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) De verandering gebeurde tijdens een woelige periode voor mijn afdeling.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) De verandering was gemakkelijker geweest als we niet bezig waren geweest met een aantal andere wijzigingen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) Door de verandering zijn de werkprocessen en procedures waarmee ik werk, veranderd.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]



## 2.4. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot 7 (helemaal mee eens):

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik ben tijdig geïnformeerd over de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) De verandering heeft problemen veroorzaakt in mijn afdeling.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) De verspreide informatie over de verandering heeft mijn vragen over de verandering goed beantwoord.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik geloof in de waarde van de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) De verandering heeft mijn afdeling geschaad.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) De verandering is een goede strategie voor ons politiekorps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) De geleverde inspanningen bij de implementatie van de verandering waren doeltreffend.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) De verandering heeft de normale werking van mijn afdeling verstoord.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) Ik heb deelgenomen aan de implementatie van de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) De verandering was niet nodig.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(11) De verandering dient een belangrijk doel.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(12) Het zou beter zijn zonder de verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(13) Persoonlijk denk ik dat de manier waarop de verandering uitgevoerd is, een succes was.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(14) Door de verandering is mijn afdeling minder doeltreffend.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(15) De manier waarop de verandering is doorgevoerd was doeltreffend.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(16) Ik heb inbreng geleverd voor de beslissingen over de toekomst van ons politiekorps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(17) Ik heb de verandering beïnvloed.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(18) Ik denk dat het officierenkader een fout maakt door de verandering door te voeren.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(19) De verspreide informatie over de verandering was nuttig.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(20) Vóór de verandering plaatsvond, heb ik de gepaste informatie erover ontvangen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

## 3. Uw persoonlijke mening over ...

Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over leiderschap en uw betrokkenheid bij de politie.

## 3.1. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot 7 (helemaal mee eens); kruis op elke regel één van de antwoordmogelijkheden aan:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Leiderschap kan niet aangeleerd worden.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Leiderschap is eigendom van de groep, niet van het individu.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Leiderschapskwaliteiten en vaardigheden kunnen ontwikkeld worden.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Als je toezicht houdt over anderen, ben je een leider.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Iemand zijn formele positie bepaalt of hij/zij leider is.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Leiderschap en macht zijn in grote mate hetzelfde.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) Individuen kunnen geen leiderschap bezitten, het is eigendom van de groep.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(8) Leiderschap is de verantwoordelijkheid van iedereen in een groep.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) Samen creëren groepsleden leiderschap.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) Leiders geven bevelen aan andere mensen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(11) Leiderschap vindt plaats wanneer mensen samenwerken.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(12) Leiders kunnen vaardigheden verwerven waardoor ze effectiever worden.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(13) Leiderschap is niet het bezit van één enkel individu.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(14) Leiderschap gaat meer om de groep dan om een enkele leider.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(15) Mensen kunnen leren om een meer effectieve leider te zijn.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(16) Leiderschap houdt in dat een groep collectief beslissingen maakt.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

## 3.2. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van 1 (helemaal mee oneens), 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot 7 (helemaal mee eens):

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik ben enthousiast over de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik identificeer mezelf niet met de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik vind het vervelend dat ik deel uitmaak van de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik heb er spijt van dat ik bij de politie ben gegaan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Ik ben fier dat ik deel uitmaak van de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Deel uitmaken van de politie is belangrijk voor mijn zelfbeeld.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

## 4. Informatie over u zelf

4.1. U bent? ☐ Man ☐ Vrouw4.2. U bent? ☐ jonger dan 25j ☐ 26-35 j ☐ 36-45j ☐ 46-55j ☐ + 55j4.3. Uw anciënniteit in het korps? ☐ 0 - 6 maand ☐ 6m-2j ☐ 2j - 5j ☐ 5-10j ☐ + 10j4.4. Uw anciënniteit in uw cel of dienst? ☐ 0 - 3 maand ☐ 3m-6m ☐ 6m - 1j4.5. De periode in uw huidige functie? ☐ 0 - 3 maand ☐ 3m-6m ☐ 6m - 1j ☐ 1j-3j ☐ 3j-5j ☐ meer dan 5j4.6. Heeft u een leidinggevende positie? ☐ Neen ☐ Ja

4.6.1. Indien ja: hoeveel personen rapporteren rechtstreeks aan u?

☐ 0-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ meer dan 20

4.7. Uw opleidingsniveau?

☐ Basis ☐ Middelbaar onderwijs ☐ Aanvullend secundair onderwijs ☐ Hogeschool ☐ (post)Universitair

4.8. Heeft u nog opmerkingen?

Gelieve deze vragenlijst (zonder de eerste pagina) onder gesloten envelop  
te bezorgen aan het secretariaat van de afdeling.

HEEL HARTELIJK BEDANKT VOOR UW MEDEWERKIN

G

## APPENDIX D: SURVEY (NL) - DATA COLLECTION CHAPTER 4

Universiteit Antwerpen – Faculteit Economie  
Prinsstraat 13  
2000 ANTWERPEN

**Onderwerp:** Wetenschappelijk onderzoek naar  
succesfactoren in veranderende organisaties

Beste mevrouw of heer,



In vele organisaties zien we dat de enige constante “verandering” is, en dit geldt ook binnen de politie. Nieuwe processen, andere collega’s, nieuwe regelgeving of een andere werkplek zijn maar enkele voorbeelden. Al deze veranderingen hebben een grote impact op de motivatie van politie mensen en CALog. Daarom onderzoeken we, vanuit het Europese project COMPOSITE (<http://www.composite-project.eu/>), welke factoren de betrokkenheid op het werk beïnvloeden in een veranderende omgeving.

Om deze aspecten te bepalen, hebben we echter uw hulp nodig. Met deze brief willen we u graag uitnodigen om deel te nemen aan de bijgevoegde enquête. De vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over de organisatie, uw houding tegenover organisatie veranderingen, uw tevredenheid als medewerker en de wijziging naar de sectorwerking in 2010. Mocht u de vragenlijst invullen na 14 oktober en u misschien net een nieuwe leidinggevende heeft, dan mag u bij het invullen van de vragen rekening houden met het team onder de vorige leidinggevende.

Het invullen van de enquête zal een 15-tal minuten van uw tijd in beslag nemen. Na een peiling in het korps hebben we de bevraging ook aangepast zodat de anonymiteit verzekerd is: in plaats van een bevraging per dienst, wordt het nu gegroepeerd per afdeling. Indien u vindt dat (de combinatie van) bepaalde vragen ervoor zorgt dat u geïdentificeerd kan worden, mag u die open laten. In elk geval kan u er op rekenen dat de confidentialiteit m.b.t. de verstrekte gegevens verzekerd is. De antwoorden op de enquête komen uitsluitend ter beschikking van de betrokken onderzoekers van de Universiteit Antwerpen. Het korps krijgt géén inzage in de enquêtes en krijgt alleen gegroepeerde resultaten in grafieken. De resultaten voor het gehele korps, en verschillen met andere korpsen, zullen nadien ook samengevat worden zodat er in de toekomst (nog) beter met verandering kan worden omgegaan.

We hopen dat u gebruik maakt van deze kans om anoniem uw mening te geven over verschillende aspecten van de organisatie van het korps.

Wij willen u vriendelijk verzoeken bijgevoegde enquête in te vullen en vóór 26 oktober te bezorgen aan het secretariaat of bij de personeelsdienst. Mocht u vragen hebben, kan u ons steeds contacteren via email op [sofie.rogiest@ua.ac.be](mailto:sofie.rogiest@ua.ac.be).

Alvast hartelijk bedankt voor uw tijd en uw medewerking,

Drs. S. Rogiest  
Drs. M. Röthengatter

Prof. dr. J. Segers  
Prof. dr. van Witteloostuijn

## 1. Vragen over de organisatie: Afdeling

Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw mening over het korps en uw persoonlijke mening over de manier van werken binnen de afdeling. Er zijn geen correcte of foute antwoorden.

- 1.1. In welke mate wordt de manier van werken in de afdeling correct beschreven in onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal fout)**, 2 (meestal fout), 3 (meestal juist) tot **4 (helemaal juist)**; kruis op elke regel één van de antwoordmogelijkheden aan:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
(1) Mijn directe leidinggevende controleert heel strikt het werk van de mensen onder zich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) We kunnen interne regels en formele procedures negeren als dat helpt om het werk gedaan te krijgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(3) In de afdeling geraakt niemand echt overstuur als mensen de interne regels breken.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(4) Mijn directe leidinggevende betreft de mensen wanneer beslissingen worden genomen die hen aangaan.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(5) Mijn directe leidinggevende voert een te strikt bewind over de manier waarop dingen hier geregeld worden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(6) Informatie wordt breed verspreid in onze afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(7) Alles moet gedaan worden volgens het boekje in de afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(8) Veranderingen worden doorgevoerd zonder te spreken met de betrokkenen in onze afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(9) We hebben geen enkele inbreng in beslissingen die ons werk beïnvloeden in de afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(10) Het is belangrijk om dingen eerst bij de baas te checken vóór een beslissing te nemen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(11) Er zijn vaak communicatiestoringen in de afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(12) Het is in de afdeling niet nodig om de interne procedures letterlijk te volgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(13) Mijn directe leidinggevende vertrouwt erop dat mensen werk-gerelateerde beslissingen nemen zonder eerst goedkeuring te verkrijgen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(14) Mijn directe leidinggevende laat de mensen meestal hun eigen beslissingen nemen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(15) Mensen hebben vaak het gevoel dat beslissingen over hun hoofd heen genomen worden in onze afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(16) In de afdeling vindt men het extreem belangrijk dat de interne regels gevolgd worden.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 1.2. Onderstaande uitspraken peilen naar uw mening over de veranderingen in de afdeling.

In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (neutraal), 4 (mee eens) tot **5 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(1) Veranderingen gebeuren altijd tijdens woelige periodes voor mijn afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) Nieuwe veranderingen lijden vaak onder te veel andere bezigheden op onze afdeling.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(3) We zijn meestal nog eerdere veranderingen aan het verwerken wanneer we aan nieuwe veranderingen beginnen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(4) Nieuwe veranderingen zouden gemakkelijker zijn mochten we niet altijd tegelijkertijd bezig zijn met andere wijzigingen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 1.3. Onderstaande uitspraken peilen naar uw mening over het korps.

In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (neutraal), 4 (mee eens) tot **5 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(1) Het succes van mijn korps is mijn succes.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Wanneer iemand mijn korps bekritiseert, voel ik dat als een persoonlijke belediging.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Wanneer een persbericht mijn korps bekritiseert, voel ik me opgelaten.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Wanneer ik over mijn korps praat, zeg ik meestal 'wij' in plaats van 'zij'.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Ik ben zeer geïnteresseerd in wat anderen over mijn korps denken.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Wanneer iemand positief spreekt over mijn korps, voel ik dat als een persoonlijk compliment.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

1.4. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot **7 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik zou met plezier de rest van mijn loopbaan bij dit politiekorps werken.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik heb niet het gevoel dat ik echt "deel uitmaak" van dit korps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik denk dat ik gemakkelijk even gehecht kan geraken aan een ander politiekorps dan aan dit korps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Dit korps heeft veel persoonlijke waarde voor me.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Ik voel me niet emotioneel gehecht aan dit politiekorps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Ik heb echt het gevoel dat de problemen van dit korps mij persoonlijk aangaan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) In mijn politiekorps voel ik me geen "deel van de familie".	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) Ik voel niet echt dat ik "erbij hoor" in mijn politiekorps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

## 2. Uw persoonlijke mening over ...

2.1. Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over verandering. Er zijn geen correcte of foute antwoorden. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot **7 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik aarzel meestal om nieuwe ideeën uit te proberen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Normaal gezien betekent verandering voor mij een verbetering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik vind de meeste veranderingen aangenaam.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Verandering helpt me vaak om beter te werken.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Ik stel vaak nieuwe manieren van werken voor.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Ik ervaar meestal weerstand bij nieuwe ideeën.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) Ik kijk uit naar veranderingen op het werk.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) Verandering frustreert mij.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) Andere mensen vinden dat ik veranderingen steun.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) Verandering zorgt er meestal voor dat ik minder controle heb over wat er gebeurt op het werk.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(11) Veranderingen geven me meestal energie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(12) Verandering is meestal goed voor de organisatie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(13) Normaal gezien ondersteun ik nieuwe ideeën.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(14) De meeste van mijn collega's hebben baat bij verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(15) Ik houd niet van verandering.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(16) Ik ben van plan zoveel mogelijk te doen om verandering te ondersteunen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(17) Ik ben geneigd nieuwe ideeën uit te proberen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(18) De meeste veranderingen op het werk zijn irritant.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.2. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op onderstaande stellingen op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (een beetje mee oneens), 4 (een beetje mee eens), 5 (mee eens) tot **6 (helemaal mee eens)**.

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
(1) Ik ben in staat om de uitdagingen bij veranderingen te overwinnen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Wanneer ik geconfronteerd wordt met moeilijke veranderingen, dan ben ik ervan overtuigd dat ik dit aankan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik ben er zeker van dat ik om kan gaan met bijna elke verandering waar ik mijn zinnen op zet.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik heb er vertrouwen in dat ik doeltreffend kan omgaan met veranderingen in mijn job.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Vergeleken met andere mensen, kan ik de veranderingen in de organisatie goed aan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Zelfs wanneer dingen de hele tijd veranderen, kan ik vrij goed presteren.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.3. Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over leiderschap.

In welke mate bent u het ermee eens dat onderstaande uitspraken u correct beschrijven? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op onderstaande stellingen op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (een beetje mee oneens), 4 (een beetje mee eens), 5 (mee eens) tot **6 (helemaal mee eens)**.

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
(1) Ik ben een leider.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik zie mezelf als een leider.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Als ik mezelf zou moeten beschrijven aan anderen, dan zou het woord "leider" erin voorkomen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik word graag door anderen gezien als leider.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.4. Onderstaande uitspraken peilen naar uw mening over uw beroep: het behoren tot de politie.

In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (neutraal), 4 (mee eens) tot **5 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(1) Wanneer iemand mijn beroep bekritiseert, voel ik dat als een persoonlijke belediging.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik ben zeer geïnteresseerd in wat anderen over mijn beroep denken.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Wanneer ik over mijn beroep praat, zeg ik meestal 'wij' in plaats van 'zij'.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Het succes van mijn beroep is mijn succes.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Wanneer iemand positief spreekt over mijn beroep, voel ik dat als een persoonlijk compliment.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(6) Wanneer een persbericht mijn beroep bekritiseert, voel ik me opgelaten.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
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2.5. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot **7 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik ben enthousiast over de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik identificeer mezelf niet met de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik vind het vervelend dat ik deel uitmaak van de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik heb er spijt van dat ik bij de politie ben gegaan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Ik ben fier dat ik deel uitmaak van de politie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Deel uitmaken van de politie is belangrijk voor mijn zelfbeeld.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.6. Onderstaande uitspraken peilen naar uw mening over werken in de publieke sector.

In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot **7 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) Ik ben geïnteresseerd in de beleidsprogramma's die goed zijn voor mijn land of de gemeenschap waartoe ik behoor.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik deel graag mijn visie op het overheidsbeleid met anderen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Het zou me veel voldoening geven te zien dat mensen voordeel hebben van een beleidsprogramma waar ik intens bij betrokken ben geweest.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik beschouw werken in het gemeenschappelijk belang als een burgerplicht.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Betekenisvol werk in het gemeenschappelijk belang is erg belangrijk voor me.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Ik zou liever zien dat de politie doet wat het beste is voor de hele gemeenschap, zelfs als dat mijn persoonlijke belangen schaadt.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) Het is moeilijk voor mij om mijn gevoelens te beheersen als ik mensen in nood zie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) Dagelijkse gebeurtenissen herinneren mij er vaak aan hoe afhankelijk we zijn van elkaar.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) Ik voel sympathie voor het lot van de onbevoorrechten.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) Het maken van een verschil in de samenleving betekent meer voor mij dan persoonlijke prestaties.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(11) Ik ben bereid om enorme offers te brengen voor het welzijn van de samenleving.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(12) Ik geloof dat plicht belangrijker is dan eigenbelang.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(13) Ik streef ernaar in de publieke sector werkzaam te blijven	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.7. Onderstaande uitspraken peilen naar uw werktevredenheid.

In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (geheel ontevreden)**, 2 (ontevreden), 3 (neutraal), 4 (tevreden) tot **5 (geheel tevreden)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(1) Hoe tevreden bent u met het type werk dat u uitoefent?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Hoe tevreden bent u met uw directe leidinggevende?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]



(3) Hoe tevreden bent u met uw relaties met anderen in de organisatie met wie u werkt – uw collega's en relaties?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Hoe tevreden bent u met het salaris dat u ontvangt voor uw werk?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Hoe tevreden bent u met de kansen die bestaan in uw organisatie op het gebied van een bevordering of promotie?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Alles meegenomen, hoe tevreden bent u met uw huidige werksituatie?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

2.8. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (neutraal), 4 (mee eens) tot **5 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(1) Ik heb het idee gewaardeerd te worden binnen de organisatie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Wanneer mensen het moeilijk hebben komt er vanuit de organisatie weinig steun.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik heb het idee dat dit werk een negatieve invloed heeft op mijn algehele welzijn.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik merk dat ik ook thuis soms nog met het werk in mijn hoofd zit.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Het werken op deze dienst brengt mij nog voldoende uitdagingen en voldoening.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) Ik heb het idee dat er meer in mij zit dan er op dit moment uitkomt.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) Er is op deze dienst een prettige omgang tussen collega's.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) Als ik met een probleem zit kan ik daar bij mijn leidinggevende mee terecht.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) Mijn leidinggevende staat altijd open voor vragen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) Als het niet zou hoeven zou ik niet langer naar het werk gaan.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(11) Binnen deze organisatie wordt ik op een eerlijke manier behandeld.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(12) Ik heb het idee gewaardeerd te worden binnen de organisatie.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

### 3. Informatie over u zelf

3.1. U bent? ☐ Man ☐ Vrouw

3.2. U bent? ☐ jonger dan 25j ☐ 26-35j ☐ 36-45j ☐ 46-55j ☐ + 55j

3.3. Heeft u een leidinggevende positie? ☐ Neen ☐ Ja

3.3.1. Indien ja: hoeveel personen rapporteren rechtstreeks aan u?

☐ 0-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ meer dan 20

3.3.2. Indien ja: gelieve ook onderstaande vraag 5 in te vullen over uw manier van leidinggeven

3.4. Uw anciënniteit in het korps? ☐ < 1j ☐ 1 - 3j ☐ 3j - 5j ☐ 5-10j ☐ 10-20j ☐ 20-30j ☐ + 30j

Indien u langer dan 3 jaar in het korps werkt, gelieve ook vraag 4 in te vullen over de overgang naar sectorwerking.

3.5. Uw anciënniteit in uw cel of dienst? ☐ <6m ☐ 6m - 1j ☐ 1 - 3j ☐ 3j - 5j ☐ 5-10j ☐ + 10j

3.6. Wat was uw vorige cel of dienst? .....

3.7. De periode in uw huidige functie? ☐ <6m ☐ 6m - 1j ☐ 1j-3j ☐ 3j-5j ☐ 5-10j ☐ + 10j

3.8. Uw opleidingsniveau?

☐ Basis ☐ Middelbaar onderwijs ☐ Aanvullend secundair onderwijs ☐ Hogeschool ☐ (post)Universitair

3.9. Heeft u nog opmerkingen?

**Vraag 4 en 5 vindt u op de volgende pagina.**

**4. Gelieve onderstaande vragen in te vullen indien u de verandering in 2010 heeft meegemaakt.**

Onderstaande vragen peilen naar uw persoonlijke mening over de verandering in 2010. Er zijn geen correcte of foute antwoorden.

4.1. Kunt u kort de gevolgen van de verandering in 2010 in uw huidige werkomgeving beschrijven?

4.2. In welke mate bent u het eens met onderstaande uitspraken over de verandering in 2010?

Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal mee oneens)**, 2 (mee oneens), 3 (licht mee oneens), 4 (neutraal), 5 (licht mee eens), 6 (mee eens) tot **7 (helemaal mee eens)**:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
(1) De verandering in 2010 was niet nodig.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik geloof in de waarde van de verandering in 2010.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Het zou beter zijn zonder de verandering in 2010.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik denk dat het officierenkader een fout maakt door de overgang naar de verandering in 2010 door te voeren.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) De verandering in 2010 dient een belangrijk doel.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(6) De verandering in 2010 is een goede strategie voor ons politiekorps.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(7) De verandering in 2010 heeft de normale werking van mijn dienst verstoord.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(8) Door de verandering in 2010 is mijn dienst minder doeltreffend.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(9) De verandering in 2010 heeft problemen veroorzaakt in mijn dienst.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(10) De verandering in 2010 heeft mijn dienst geschaad.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

**5. Gelieve onderstaande vraag in te vullen indien u een leidinggevende positie heeft.**

In welke mate wordt uw manier van werken in uw team correct beschreven in onderstaande uitspraken? Gelieve uw antwoord te geven op een schaal gaande van **1 (helemaal fout)**, 2 (meestal fout), 3 (meestal juist) tot **4 (helemaal juist)**; kruis op elke regel één van de antwoordmogelijkheden aan:

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
(1) Ik voer een strikt bewind over de manier waarop dingen in mijn team geregeld worden.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(2) Ik laat de medewerkers in mijn team meestal hun eigen beslissingen nemen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(3) Ik vertrouw erop dat mensen werk-gerelateerde beslissingen nemen zonder eerst goedkeuring te vragen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(4) Ik controleer strikt het werk van de mensen onder mij.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
(5) Het is belangrijk in ons team om dingen eerst bij mij te checken vóórdat een beslissing wordt genomen.	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Gelieve deze vragenlijst (zonder de eerste pagina) onder gesloten envelop te bezorgen aan het secretariaat of bij de personeelsdienst.

HEEL HARTELIJK BEDANKT VOOR UW MEDEWERKING